

# The Historical Outlook

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READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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## CONTENTS

	PAGE
The South in American History, by Prof. A. O. Craven	- - - 105
New Interest in Hispanic-American History, by Prof. A. C. Wilgus	109
The Laboratory Method in the Social Studies, by Prof. C. C. Crawford and L. M. Slagle	- - - - 113
Objective Testing in World History, by Prof. E. F. Lindquist and H. R. Anderson	- - - - 115
Civics a la Carte, by J. L. Pingrey	- - - - - 122
A Fusion Course in Grades VI, VII and VIII, by Bertha Montgomery	- - - - - 124
Celebrating the Lindbergh Flight, by A. A. Orth	- - - - 127

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies, by W. G. Kimmel, 128; Book Reviews, edited by Profs. H. J. Carman and J. B. Brebner, 130; Communication, 141; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 141; Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, listed by Dr. L. F. Stock, 142.

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# The Historical Outlook

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## The South in American History<sup>1</sup>

BY PROFESSOR AVERY O. CRAVEN, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The historian and the history which he produces are hopelessly entangled. What is written or taught can seldom be "cold fact," but rather "fact" as minted by the immediate individual who presents it. And both fact and historian bear the marks of the environment and age spirit which produce them. In spite of our efforts at impartiality we must recognize the national, sectional, racial, or religious character of our history. It can, therefore, never be final. It must always be subject to revision from new points of view as new stations are taken by those who profess themselves "historians."

American history, as it has been most widely accepted in the North, has been the product of New England pens. From Edward Johnson and Thomas Prince to George Bancroft and Edward Channing our "standard histories" have come from that section and all bear the stamp of the region from which they have come. There has been no conscious effort to distort facts or to force an acceptance of their point of view. Men have simply written as they have thought, and their historical interpretation has been carried westward by the normal process of "civilization in transit" as teacher, printer, and descendant have become carriers from the old to the new. And the New England point of view has been accepted without question by those who on the broad, flat, black-soiled, treeless prairies have sung their devotion to native land by loving "thy rocks and rills, thy woods and templed hills." But it has, nevertheless, given to the American history of the North and West an unbalanced and often unsound flavor. The South has been neglected or even misrepresented, and too many of those who teach American history in these sections are quite ignorant of how the other half has lived. Too many folks "really believe that the Mayflower brought the first white settlers to America, that representative government began in New England; that the Revolution was begun, fought, and won there; and that from that section have come most of the important personages in our history."<sup>2</sup> One is inclined sometimes to sympathize with the good southern lady who demanded an "impartial history of the United States written from the southern standpoint."

The average person in the North, as I have been able to gather it, thinks of the South as a very distinct place with nothing very distinct about it. There are vague notions of tobacco and cotton fields, negroes who sing weird songs when they are not being abused, great houses, whose white pillars rise indistinctly behind heavy foliage, and where sluggish streams

idle through forbidding swamps. A land where once Captain John Smith was rescued by a charming Indian maid and where lonely settlers were supplied with wives from abroad; where Nathaniel Bacon rebelled and Patrick Henry expressed certain very emphatic preferences; and out of which rode George Washington and Thomas Jefferson to play a part in the national life which centered in the North. A land which then simply turned white with cotton, drove negro slaves under the lash, and plotted in cold-blooded Calhoun fashion the destruction of Daniel Webster's glorious Union. It fought gallantly, but foolishly, from '61 to '65, and then dropped out of history only to rise every four years to proclaim its solid ignorance and prejudices. Most folks are quite ready to agree with the Ohio ferryman whom Dr. Phillips quotes as remarking as he approaches the right bank, "We are now nearing the American shore."<sup>3</sup>

Until recently southerners have done little to correct this situation. They have taken northern antipathy as a matter of course and been content if they could protect their own children from anti-southern points of view. They have been severely handicapped in making an impression on other sections by a dearth of historical materials, by poor research facilities, and most of all by an overdrawn sectional patriotism engendered by Reconstruction ills. While Puritan New England, "elect of God and acutely conscious of the fact," preserved minute records and made a conscious effort to show the wonders of God in the doings of his chosen peoples, the easy-going southerner, less aware of a mission or brothers to be kept, failed to keep or collect his papers and wrote, when he did undertake it, to a very limited audience. The burdens of rebuilding a civilization were too heavy for schools and libraries to keep pace with those outside, and her larger influence on general historical opinion, for the time, had to come from those sons who had gone away to take their places on the faculties of northern universities. More recently the southern schools have taken a hand and southern history has gone forward enough to give little excuse for the continued presentation of an unbalanced story. A better viewpoint is now possible even though it has not made its way widely into our secondary teaching.

There are two steps necessary, as I see it, to bring American history into proper balance. There must be a wider inclusion of southern facts in the story, and there must be a clearer understanding of the fundamental features of the South, past and

present. The story of early settlements in the Carolinas, which is as thrilling and important as those in Massachusetts, must be placed alongside of Plymouth and Boston; southern home and religious life, as rich and often as turbulent as Rhode Island's itself, must be given an equal place; the Laurences, the Harnetts, the Gadsdens, the Blairs, and the Meads should be as well known as the Hancocks, the Otises, the Cottons, and the Mathers. Other tea parties and other battles away from Boston and Lexington must come into the Revolutionary story, and recognition be given to the fact that most of the important documents of those troubled days came from men outside of New England.

But more important, and certainly a first requirement, is that those who teach and write American history have a correct understanding of the fundamental factors in southern life. They must know that there was something besides slavery in the old South, and that there is something besides backwardness in the new. They must understand what makes the South southern.

To begin with, I would ask, "What is the South?" "Where does it begin, and why can it be marked off as a separate distinct thing?" The one who knows most about it will hesitate longest to answer these questions, and may end by frankly saying what one of the keenest students of the section said to me, "There is no South; there never was one." Virginia must be southern, but Virginia never raised cotton, and tobacco is grown in Connecticut and Wisconsin; furthermore, Virginia is as different from North Carolina as Pennsylvania is different from Vermont. In 1860 her agricultural life, the dominating economic effort, was nearer like that of New York than like that of Alabama.<sup>4</sup> And South Carolina, or even Charleston in South Carolina, is and always has been unlike either of the other two southern states mentioned or any part of them. And is Kentucky southern? She was loyal in 1860. And Missouri? Or Arkansas? Do they resemble in any essential Virginia or South Carolina? Can the Louisiana bayou world with its French, its Spanish, or its Felicianans, with its great city which for many a decade was the metropolis of the Southwest, be thrown into any broad generalization with Texas or the mountain regions of Tennessee? There may be several Souths, but the honest student will hesitate long before he makes sweeping statements which assume uniform conditions or opinions in such a scattered and diversified section. Might I suggest first, that the usual flippant use of the term "the South" be discarded, that we cease to make sweeping statements which imply a unity of conditions, attitudes, or ways of living in this section either early or late. "The South" and "The Cotton Kingdom" were never the same; John C. Calhoun was never the spokesman of "the South"; slavery never dominated in "the South"; a belief in states rights was never a peculiarly southern characteristic; and as nearly as I have been able to discover there never was political, social, or economic harmony in the land

which stretches from Mason and Dixon's Line to the Gulf. And when it did get off to itself, and not all of it did go off, it had almost as much trouble within itself by disagreement and conflict as when it was a part of the Union.

Whenever the South was southern enough to act and feel as a unit, it was when other sections, or politicians or reformers in them, stirred enough of emotion or resentment within such diversity as to compel co-operation, but certainly never to create union. The southernness of the South is a psychological thing, but the foundations upon which it rests are certain broad characteristics which give likeness of interest within a wide range of variation. There were a few things which were common enough in all this region, though by no means exclusively so, which enabled an interest to exist upon which an emotional reaction might be created and a self-consciousness produced. The South was rural; it had an old world tradition; and it early had more than its share of negroes. The South was not always southern, but it always had these fundamental elements. And whenever one or all of these were affected a more or less consciousness of common interest was called into being. Tariffs, favoring urban-industrial life, hurt a rural world and caused it to react with the common weapon of states rights; abolition threatened to produce a race problem which had in large part been solved by the institution of slavery, and caused a move for independence; and a life modeled after that of the old world English gentleman gave to the dominant group a feeling of smug superiority which outside was interpreted as haughty defiance. To rightly understand the "so-called" South requires a clear understanding of these elements and their effects.

The first thing to be understood about the South is that it has always been primarily a rural-agricultural region. Her colonies, made up of largely the same middle-class stock as those of New England, began life in the same frontier fashion. It was the same case of men with old-world tastes beginning over again at the very bottom to erect a civilization in the wilderness. All had to return to the simple tasks of feeding, clothing and sheltering themselves. All progress, from crude log huts, skins and home-spuns, hunting, fishing and grubbing, had to come by finding some surplus which might be sent to the markets of the old world in exchange for better things. And if North and South soon differed it was because the agricultural effort of the one yielded a staple surplus which the other could not, and which enabled them quickly to reproduce the English life they had left behind and which all so much desired. Tobacco thus became the key to prosperity, the means of escaping from frontier privations and of living the country life of the English gentleman. As Massachusetts men on stingy soils gave up luxury and often comfort, men who grew tobacco erected English houses, chased the fox in good English style, raced, gambled and went to established churches as they might have done in merry old England itself.

An agricultural life was fixed and a whole life erected upon the raising of a single crop. Ships came up deep rivers to load the harvest at every man's wharf, and foreign merchants handled both exports and imports as native energy spread out the broad acres to the exclusion of towns or other diversification of the rural-agricultural order. More acres and more labor was the constant call and when profits declined because of glutted markets and governmental taxes and regulations, they only sought fresher lands and substituted the cheaper and more permanent negro labor working under slavery for the white man working under indenture.

And what tobacco was to some, rice and indigo were to others further to the south, so that a great rural-agricultural world soon stretched from Baltimore to the Spanish domains, characterized by all that distinguishes such an order from the urban-commercial-industrial. And when tobacco had run its course, and men had begun to talk of manufactories, banks, trade, and better transportation, a world demand greater than that which made the tobacco kingdom, came sweeping in for cotton. Without break, therefore, the rural-agricultural order reached out in a great crescent across Alabama and Mississippi into Texas and Arkansas. The new South was to be as the old. Where population in New England by 1830 averaged 31.5 persons to the square mile, it was only 6.4 in the South, and where in 1860 it stood 50.6 for New England, the South showed only 12.5.<sup>5</sup>

This was the great difference between the sections in 1860, and not the fact that one of them had slaves and the other did not. It was not slavery that made the South backward in its social accumulations. If their schools were poor, it should be remembered that regions of scattered population are always behind in educational facilities; if their churches were poor and scattered we must understand that there has been a problem in erecting and manning churches in the rural West and Northwest even in our own day; if their roads were poor it should also be noticed that our most rural sections of the North are still well behind the more densely populated regions, with Iowa pretty well bringing up the rear of the Nation; if we think slavery produced the single crop type of agriculture we will be at a loss to explain the single wheat, corn, or flax crops of the great Northwest in its expansion from New York to the Dakotas. In truth, most of the things which have been blamed onto slavery were the product of ruralness and have continued on in the South regardless of the fact that slavery has long since been done away with. It was from Nebraska that the South got its greatest spokesman against evolution. Even the temper and texture of the southern mind is rural and differs not from that of others who live under like conditions.

The second factor which gave flavor to the South has already been alluded to, the fact that it early was able to approximate the standards of the Old World. In the England from which the early settlers came the country gentleman was the favored

one. Landholding gave position and privilege. No other calling held equal social rank or drew the men of ambition as did that of gentleman farmer. And when men became established or made their stake in any line their first thought was to establish a country seat and take on the airs of a country gentleman. Now it should be remembered that it was this ideal which an early surplus in tobacco enabled the southern man to approach and which, with abetting geographic conditions, permitted the establishment of the English local system of counties, sheriffs, justices of the peace and military officers. And if the "J.P." was soon ruling his neighborhood, and the county courts were forming little oligarchies all over the South to the checking of democratic institutions, it was only because they had attained and maintained the old world system of which they were a part.

In fact, much that is considered to be southern and the product of slaveholding is only English. The country house with its formal gardens, the library, the attitude toward women, the reverence for the military, these and much else belong to a people from old world beginnings who as late as 1850 were buying the novels of Sir Walter Scott in carload lots. A clear understanding of these facts will prevent such statements as that slavery produced a contempt for labor and made the manufacturer and merchant lack cast. It will make the romanticism of the South much older in origins than slavery or staple crops.

But far more important than English traditions was the presence in the South of the negro, the negro as a foreign element, not necessarily as a slave. And here a very sharp distinction must always be made. The negro was a negro long before he was a slave, and he remains a negro long after slavery disappears. The negro was and is an individual of different race and qualities than the white, and slavery was just the system under which he worked. It should always be remembered that the plantation and staple crops developed with white labor working under the system of indenture, which served, first, to supply labor to a wilderness and, second, to hold it amid the opportunities which a boundless region offered for starting out "on one's own hook." It should be kept in mind that such white labor predominated for about half the colonial period, and that negroes were not substituted until the pressure for economy in tobacco-making simply compelled a cheaper worker. And when the negro took the place of the white, a different system for securing and holding him was demanded. Indenture no longer served; the negro was of a different race and he knew little of civilized economic effort; he was of a lower civilization and was a constant menace to white society. A system had to be found that would render this ignorant creature profitable and the society into which he was introduced safe from his ignorance or his viciousness. Slavery thus was introduced to take the place of indenture, and as the blacks grew in numbers and tended to outnumber the whites in places, the black codes were added to give greater protection where slavery might not be enough. Thus was the labor problem solved

and the far more serious race problem handled. And the plantation system, which is just large scale production applied to agriculture, was developed so that such cheap ignorant laborers could carry on simple and continuous processes, and supervision could be gotten for greater efficiency. The fact, therefore, that the negro was a negro had its part in producing slavery itself. The system and the individual who labored under it must always be understood apart.

The negro must always be thought of as a laborer who produced a race question by his presence; slavery must be looked at as a method of solving a labor problem and a means of making white society safe with so large a foreign element thrown undigested into it. It is even sound to look upon the overseer as in part employed as a policeman whose task was to protect society from its lower elements. One should always remember that abolition threatened the South with Africanization, and that the race question was the real force which drew all classes into unity in resistance. Men of the South early questioned the efficiency and rightness of slavery. Many of them, if not always a majority of them, looked upon it as only a temporary thing and looked forward to the time when it might be done away with. But no one knew what to do with the negro when he was free; it was a case of jumping out of the frying pan of slavery into the fire of a race problem. And until someone suggested a solution for the latter they were willing to put up with the former as a guarantee of white supremacy. Outside interference often caused them to talk of slavery as a positive good, and perhaps in many cases led men to such an honest belief, but the final test they always made was the one I have suggested, and southern union in 1860 was based upon that position.

The negro as such is therefore a far more important factor in the South than slavery. His presence in large enough numbers to take care of the needs for unskilled labor turned the white immigrants from the South and thus kept its native stocks pure. That the incident of slavery had nothing to do with this is shown by the fact that in 1860 the South had 9 per cent. of the foreign born, while in 1900, long after slavery had disappeared, it had only 5.2 per cent. The presence of the negro excluded the white, regardless of his condition.<sup>6</sup>

The same is true in the matter of manufacture. It has often been asserted that slavery was unsuited for industrial effort and that the region was thus kept agricultural. Such a statement overlooks the fact of a growing effort along that line which had already in 1860 given the South a comparatively larger share in the Nation's industrial life than it had in 1900, and it fails to see that the industrialization of the South as it has now begun is almost entirely without the aid of the negro. He has found his way into the section gang, but the factory has been closed to him as tightly as it might have been under the wildest dreams of the old antebellum leaders. It seems very probable that without any change in the status of the negro, the South would have entered, in the days

which were given to warfare, the era of railroad building and manufactures that have come in our own time. There were limits beyond which agriculture could not go and a diversification of a people's life seems to be a normal part of what we call progress. The South was reaching these limits in 1860, and a change was already beginning which did not touch the negro then any more than it does now.

The story of the South since the war is not in fundamentals different from what it was in antebellum days. Defeat and Reconstruction forced upon it economic ruin and a race problem which it had gone to war to avoid, but the main features of life have remained the same. Even the great industrial expansion of later days has grown upon the surplus of her soils, and the peculiar labor problems have resulted largely from the sudden transfer of labor from a rural life into the factory town. The use of women and children in industry and the permitting of long hours and poor working conditions have in large part come by continuing rural practices in the factory. In the days of Lucy Larcom in New England the factories of that section showed like conditions, and they will pass in the South as they have in the North when a thoroughly industrial generation has come into being.

Furthermore, the old leadership still largely continues in the new order and the poor white still finds the negro as much of a rival as he found the slave. Ruralness still predominates and the negro gives as much backwardness when free as he did as a slave. Changed conditions are coming with the evolution of a complex life, and parts of the South today look, act, think, and even vote like other sections. The South, never so different as we think, is and will gradually become about as much like the other sections as they are like each other. Ruralness is passing, the negro is spreading, and the old world model has lost its force. It is well, therefore, to think of the South as a section with certain distinctive qualities and at times a conscious attitude all its own. But we should remember that before abolition, Civil War, and Reconstruction, it was no more of a section than New England or the West. The Nation was only a bundle of sections. And the things that made the South a section were often the very same things which made the other sections also. That is why she could form combinations with the West and why most problems of interest arising between the sections could be compromised. But, unfortunately, her interests led her more toward localism than toward nationalism. The West, with individual expansion, needed a freer land system of National creation; it had to cross other sections in reaching markets; it had to be national. New England and the Northeast needed paternal aid in developing manufactures and an aggressive centralization for financial and industrial ends. They, too, found their own interests tied up with nationalism. The South, on the other hand, found her markets, as in colonial days, in Europe, her property interests served best by local protection, and her whole social fabric threatened by the rising

indignation of a moral crusade. On the basis of her common foundations she achieved a working unity and somehow got herself thought of as having always possessed a monopoly on sectionalism. Soon War and Reconstruction gave a tradition of being an entirely different people, with a different life on mysterious and permanent foundations, and the real facts have been hard to understand or separate. All this is now changed. We can see the South as she was and is, and she may take her place in proper balance in American history.

And may I end where I began? The history we have must reflect the historian and we must guard against a new danger as great as the old. A southern slant will be as dangerous as a New England bias. This region has a charm that lures, and lost causes make strong appeal. We must not become defenders of the old South or partisans of the new. The South

does not need defenders. To take the attitude of apology for southern weaknesses, or to plead her cause, however just, is as dangerous as to neglect her. The teacher needs only to know the facts of southern life as well as he knows those of other sections and to understand her life as well. No more is required. No more is desired. Less is unsound. This much is justice.

<sup>1</sup> A paper read before the Illinois State History Teachers' Conference, Urbana, Illinois, November 23, 1928.

<sup>2</sup> J. G. deR. Hamilton, Pamphlet on Southern Collection at University of North Carolina.

<sup>3</sup> Ulrich B. Phillips, "The Central Theme of Southern History," *American Historical Review*, XXXIV, pp. 30-43.

<sup>4</sup> Avery O. Craven, *Soil Exhaustion as a Factor in the Agricultural History of Virginia and Maryland*, pp. 148-158.

<sup>5</sup> Alfred H. Stone, "Some Problems of Southern Economic History," *American Historical Review*, Vol. XIII, p. 785.

<sup>6</sup> Alfred H. Stone, *Op. cit.*, p. 784.

## New Interest in the Teaching and Study of Hispanic-American History

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Traveling representatives of the chief college textbook publishing houses of the United States report that wherever they go one of the most frequently asked questions at present concerns their plans for publication of Hispanic-American history textbooks or other works in that field. And these queries come not only from large institutions of learning, but from many small colleges, and from an increasing number of junior and senior high schools.

The rise of this new interest is due to a number of reasons. The World War turned the American mind to international affairs and centered particular attention upon our increasing political, social, intellectual, and commercial relations with our neighbors in this hemisphere. The treaty of Versailles called attention in a new way to the Monroe Doctrine and suggested new interpretations and limitations. The rerudescence of Pan-Americanism since the war has concentrated new attention upon Hispanic-America. And, finally, President Hoover's recent friendly visit to Hispanic-America emphasized our growing interest in the territories south of the Rio Grande.

It was about thirty-four years ago that pioneer work was done in the teaching of Spanish-American and Portuguese-American history in the schools of higher learning in the United States.<sup>1</sup> In 1895 Professor Bernard Moses, of the University of California, offered a course in "Spanish-American History and Institutions." Ten years later (1904-5) the University of Texas began a course on Spanish colonization, and in the same academic year Columbia University announced a course dealing with Spanish-America. In 1909 the University of Illinois commenced a course in general Hispanic-American history. Harvard offered its first course in 1915.

Within the next two years such schools as Brown University, the University of Colorado, the University of Indiana, Notre Dame, the University of North Carolina, Northwestern University, the University of Pennsylvania, Goucher, and others began to offer courses touching upon Hispanic-American history. By 1918 interest in the field had increased to such an extent that the *Hispanic-American Historical Review* was founded to meet the needs of teachers and students of the subject. In its first number the editor, Dr. James A. Robertson, reported that twelve Ph.D. theses were in preparation in this country in the field of Hispanic-American history, that three more such theses were in press, and that one other was about to go to press.<sup>2</sup>

The next year (1919) the first college textbook in the subject was printed by the Abingdon Press. The work was entitled, *A History of Latin America*, and the author was W. W. Sweet, then of De Pauw University.<sup>3</sup> Three years later, in 1922, D. Appleton and Co. published a *History of the Latin-American Nations*, by W. S. Robertson, of the University of Illinois. In 1923 H. G. James, then of the University of Texas, and P. A. Martin, of Stanford, published their *Republics of Latin-America* through the medium of Harper and Brothers. In 1924 the first high school text entitled, *A History of Latin-America*, written by Hutton Webster, was published by D. C. Heath and Co. Since these dates no new texts have appeared though these volumes have undergone revision. At the present time, however, there are at least five college texts in the field in active preparation, the first of which is expected to appear in the fall. Meanwhile another type of college teaching aid and textbook supplement was published in 1927 by

Ginn and Co. It was entitled, *Readings in Hispanic-American History*, and was by N. A. N. Cleven, of the University of Pittsburgh.

On October 29, 1925, Dr. Leo S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan-American Union, asked the American Historical Association to undertake a survey of the teaching of Hispanic-American history in colleges, universities, normal schools, academies, and high schools in the United States. This suggestion was acted upon almost immediately and a committee began to function by sending questionnaires to 1,172 institutions in the United States.<sup>4</sup> Less than half of the schools replied, but the results, as tabulated, indicated in general the status of the teaching of Hispanic-American history in the academic year 1925-6. From this report it appeared that such courses were offered in five junior colleges, thirty-six normal schools and teachers colleges, and in 135 colleges and universities. Forty other colleges and universities reported that they had given such courses, but were not doing so then. A number of additional institutions reported that correlation was made between United States and Hispanic-American history, and between European and Hispanic-American history, though no formal courses were offered. The largest enrollment in Hispanic-American history courses was at the University of California, where in one class, "The History of the Americas," given by Dr. H. E. Bolton, there were over 1,200 students. The survey also brought to light the fact that a number of the larger institutions, such as the University of Wisconsin, the University of Minnesota, Yale, and Princeton were not offering courses in Hispanic-American history. Institutions of learning located in the seaboard states and, particularly in the Southwest, seemed to predominate in offering these courses. Many school authorities, who replied to the questions, complained that teachers in the field were not available and hence such work could not be offered.

But happily this latter reason, while once serious, is not so important a factor now. In 1927 the writer undertook for the *Hispanic-American Historical Review* "A survey of investigations in progress or contemplated in the field of Hispanic-American history."<sup>5</sup> Questionnaires were sent to the history, political science, economics, and geography departments of all colleges and universities in the United States with an enrollment of 600 or more students, and to a few schools with a smaller enrollment. This survey, which gave the status of conditions for the academic year 1926-27, showed that 237 distinct research projects were under way in some 66 colleges and universities. Of these projects 60 were graduate theses representing individuals who were fitting themselves to teach the subject in institutions of higher learning.

Another manifestation of the increasing interest in Hispanic-American history is being evinced at the successive annual meetings of the American Historical Association. For the past four years those interested in the field have held a luncheon conference where pertinent problems have been discussed. Each year more recognition has been granted by the American

Historical Association to the Hispanic-American history field by allotting more program space to papers dealing with the subject. At the last meeting at Indianapolis, in December, 1928, nine papers were read and three reports were given in this field. Moreover, at this meeting those interested in Hispanic-American history voted for the first time to associate themselves into a conference group having its own officers and affiliated with the American Historical Association.

As interest increases in the study and teaching of Hispanic-American history, new "aids" and tools for both teacher and student will be planned and published in increasing numbers. One of the most important of these projects planned at the present time is the *Inter-American Historical Series*, formerly called the *Bolivarian Historical Series*. This was suggested by Professor Hackett, of the University of Texas, in June, 1926,<sup>6</sup> and is to consist of translations of the most widely used national college history textbooks in the several Hispanic-American states. Thus students in the United States who cannot or will not read references in Spanish and Portuguese may obtain in English a first-hand view and interpretation of the history of each state. The original plan for translating and editing has been modified somewhat so that the series as now constituted will include fifteen volumes, together with an atlas of Hispanic-American history.<sup>7</sup> The University of North Carolina Press is to publish the volumes, beginning, it is expected, before the end of the present year.

A second project now under way is even more elaborate for it aims to place within the reach of all students and teachers of Hispanic-American history throughout the world their necessary bibliographical tools. I refer to the projected "Critical Bibliography of works published in all languages dealing with Hispanic-America." Such an undertaking the writer discussed with a number of interested individuals in the summer of 1927, with the result that active plans were made which led to the creation of an editorial staff consisting of the foremost Hispanic-American history scholars in the United States. With this body are to be associated some of the leading bibliographers abroad both in Europe and Hispanic-America. The number of volumes contemplated is about twenty. Present plans call for printing all critical notes in English, Spanish, and Portuguese. It is hoped that this scheme may be consummated within fifteen years. The Pan-American Union has given its support to the extent that the whole matter has been made an item for consideration on the program of the coming Pan-American Bibliographical Conference.<sup>8</sup>

A third and somewhat similar project, though on a smaller scale, has recently been planned by the "Harvard Council on Hispano-American Studies," under the direction of Dr. J. D. M. Ford. This aims to prepare a complete bibliography of belles-lettres produced in the New World in the Spanish and Portuguese languages.

A fourth undertaking is being promoted by the University of Pennsylvania. It consists of setting

aside several sections of its *Translations and Reprints* which will be devoted to readings and source material covering various aspects of Hispanic-American history.

A fifth activity is incidental to the recently commenced *Social Science Abstracts*. All of the chief periodicals of Spanish and Portuguese America, as well as those in all parts of the world, are to be abstracted in English for the benefit of students, teachers and research workers. Later this abstracting is to be extended to important volumes printed throughout the world.

In the last few years there has been a noticeable change in the type of books which have appeared concerning Hispanic-America. At one time volumes of travel and description were most numerous. But recently books of a more serious nature have been published which aim to emphasize the social, cultural, political, and economic side of the picture. This new productive activity has extended into the realm of biography with the result that many historical characters have been resurrected, re-examined in the light of the new scholarly research, and resuscitated with consequent benefit to teachers and students.

It is true, of course, that there are many noticeable gaps in our knowledge of Hispanic-American history, and that they are wider than the breaks in United States or Modern European history. But these are being filled as rapidly as possible by graduate thesis and faculty investigation in many colleges and universities in this country. Because the subject is so comparatively new this investigation is characterized by great enthusiasm and vigor. Among the works most needed at present are adequate English indexes to certain collections of Spanish and Portuguese documents, and a biographical dictionary in English of persons of historical prominence in Hispanic-America. Already plans for these are under way.

In the light of the growing interest in the subject of Hispanic-American history a few words might be said regarding the manner of teaching and the content of such courses. There are at present a number of syllabi available for the use of students and teachers which furnish excellent guides both as to content and methods. One of the earliest of these outlines was published in 1904 by Professor W. R. Shepherd, of Columbia University. Since then syllabi have been prepared and printed covering all or parts of the field by D. E. Smith in 1907, by H. E. Bard, and by W. W. Pearson in 1916, by C. Bacon in 1917, by Mary W. Williams, and by L. R. Schuyler in 1918, by I. J. Cox, J. F. O'Hara, L. R. Schuyler in 1919, by H. I. Priestley in 1920, by H. L. Hoskins in 1922, by H. E. Bolton in 1924, and by A. C. Wilgus in 1927. At the present time there are a number of syllabi in preparation and many are being used which have not been published.

While these syllabi have served as guides in the shaping of many courses it can safely be said that there is as yet no great uniformity in the teaching of the subject such as there is for example in the teaching of United States or European history. Many individual teachers have met the problems raised in

teaching as they appeared without the aid of text or syllabi and in some cases without the assistance which comes from having had a course themselves in the subject. Consequently it appears to the writer that the next step in the teaching of Hispanic-American history is the standardization of scope, content, methods, and requirements. How and when this can be accomplished is still a problem. Perhaps, therefore, in concluding one may be excused for suggesting lines of procedure along which these difficulties may well be worked out. But first it should be pointed out that all courses in Hispanic-American history can usually be made most effective by extending them over two semesters at least, if for no other reason than that the history of twenty countries is to be dealt with covering a period of some 400 years—a task comparable to the teaching of European history since the Renaissance.<sup>9</sup>

As in teaching all other history subjects one must begin at the beginning with backgrounds which in this case are both American and European. On these subjects much has been written so that the teacher can find geographic, ethnological, archaeological, and historical materials in abundance; and no teacher should neglect to familiarize himself and his students with these phases and topics. Yet many persons are and have been teaching Hispanic-American history who have neglected these subjects. On the other hand too great stress, which is easily possible here, is a mistake. The work is fascinating and one is sometimes led far afield in what may become profitless discussion. Perhaps from five to ten lectures should be devoted to this introductory period depending on whether one or two semesters are covered by the whole course.

The treatment of colonial history proper, extending from 1492-1808, is subject to many variations and it is here that great difficulties are encountered. I refer to the problems of correlation and comparison. One has the same choice as in teaching European history, of taking cross sectional historical samples or of teaching each section separately as a unit. It seems to the writer that the former procedure is most effective, following the chronological method. When the path has been plotted out the progress is relatively easy, limited only by library facilities and by textbooks which are at present distressingly inadequate in certain details of colonial history. In most courses today it appears to be the custom to pass rapidly over more than 300 years of colonial life in order to treat the last 100 years of recent history in detail. To the writer this seems a fallacy and a mistake. For not until the colonial phases are thoroughly understood and appreciated can the student have an adequate appreciative basis for his proper mastery of the modern period. Consequently in a two semester course it seems desirable that a study of the colonial epoch should not be brought to a close until the end of the first semester at least.

In Hispanic-America the transition from colonial life to independent republican life occurred from 1808 to 1824. This is a period of revolutions for

independence from Spain and Portugal. And a very serious and critical period of perturbation it was for these peoples, for without political experience they became suddenly endowed with unlimited political power and independence. Since this is so important a period sufficient time should be devoted to it so that the student will obtain the viewpoint of the peoples themselves, and learn to feel and to think as they felt and thought. It may be necessary to devote from four to eight lectures to this period depending upon whether this is a one or two semester course. Some teachers may find it advisable to end the first semester work with these struggles while others will begin the second semester with them. The writer prefers the latter plan in most instances.

After independence was won the modern period, so-called, began. Freed from parental restraint before they were able to take care of themselves, the new nations, like bewildered children, experimented by the trial and error method with all phases of political, social, economic, and intellectual life. Some states emerged eventually as great powers, some as second rate or third-rate powers, and a few as well-nigh helpless and hopeless international waifs. If a thorough understanding of colonial history has been laid this monotonous though interesting period may be rapidly passed over, tracing each nation individually, following at the end of the course with topical summaries attempting to correlate similar aspects in all of the states and pointing out contrasts and the consequent results.

At present many teachers devote a great deal of time to emphasizing economic conditions. But personally the writer believes that the economic life and relations of Hispanic-America have been overstressed and that such practice confuses the historical story. We must look at the subject of Hispanic-American history as we look at the subject of European history and try to teach it in a similar fashion using analogous methods. Certain phases of economic national life rather than economic international life should be stressed, with fewer statistics and less stress upon the mathematics of trade and commerce. Such branches of the general field of history should be given detailed consideration in special courses. Likewise in our instruction we should forget our national feeling of superiority and tutelage over the Hispanic-American states and cease to teach their national and international political life as though it were subordinate to our own and dominated by the threat of the Monroe Doctrine. Disassociation of the Hispanic-American story from the main currents of our history is at present more necessary in presenting their national life than is closer correlation of their history with ours. Today too many teachers in the United States have the big-brother-complex attitude toward Hispanic-America. Where this is too predominant it becomes harmful to our students, and besides it is not conducive to the maintenance of international good will.

While the instructional divisions here indicated are best suited for college and university presentation a

similar simplified procedure may be made applicable to high school teaching. But secondary school teachers must be prepared to encounter greater difficulties in teaching the subject than are found in college work because of lack of usable references and texts. Map material is wholly inadequate and aids for high school teaching in the field are almost entirely lacking.

The teaching of Hispanic-American history, like that of some other subjects, must grow downward from the college and university into the lower ranks of the educational system. This will not be a rapid growth in all probability, but it should be a steady and a certain growth. All of us will live to see the readjustment of the curriculum to meet this demand for Hispanic-American instruction, for if interest in the subject continues to increase in the next ten years as it has in the past ten years it is destined to find a permanent place in all of our educational institutions. Such a consummation is devoutly to be wished.

<sup>1</sup> *Hispanic-American Historical Review*, VII, 352-3 (Aug., 1927). Hereafter this periodical will be cited as *H. A. H. R.*

<sup>2</sup> *H. A. H. R.*, I, 118-19 (Feb., 1918).

<sup>3</sup> In 1914 Henry Holt & Co. published in the *Home University Library* series a little volume by W. R. Shepherd, entitled, *Latin-America*. This, however, is not a textbook in the strict meaning, but is rather a reference volume. A somewhat similar type of work was written by the same author for the Yale *Chronicles of America* series and was entitled *The Hispanic Nations of the New World* (1919). Three other historical sketches of Hispanic-America which have been used as texts, but which are more properly reference works, are: Julian Hawthorne, *Spanish-America from the earliest period to the present time* (in *Nations of the World* series, 1899); Thomas C. Dawson, *The South American Republics* (in the *Story of the Nations* series, 2 vols., 1904); and W. F. Griebe, *History of South America* (1913).

<sup>4</sup> For the report of this committee see *H. A. H. R.*, VII, 351-61 (Aug., 1927).

<sup>5</sup> *H. A. H. R.*, VII, 361-74 (Aug., 1927).

<sup>6</sup> *H. A. H. R.*, VII, 221-5 (May, 1927).

<sup>7</sup> *H. A. H. R.*, VIII, 286-9 (May, 1928).

<sup>8</sup> *H. A. H. R.*, IX, 254-7 (May, 1929).

<sup>9</sup> Excellent suggestions for teachers of Hispanic-American history are issued by the Pan-American Union. See *Latin-America. Suggestions for Teachers* (1924).

The February *Review of Reviews* has Frank H. Simonds' account of the opening days at the London Conference, outlining the needs and probable demands of each of the great powers there represented. He reminds his readers that in the matter of naval limitation, as it concerns the United States and Great Britain directly, and France and Italy only less importantly, the Washington Conference was a dismal failure. Now, America's maximum hope is a Five-Power Treaty, which alone promises an adjustment of naval strengths in the world. Just now such an agreement seems manifestly impossible; Japan asks for a 7-10 ratio instead of the 6-10 one of Washington. Britain is not going to abandon the two-power standard, and France announced in advance that she will not sign any treaty and has adopted a policy which excludes the discussion of ratios. Perhaps the only thing remaining is a "holiday of battleships," perhaps for twenty-five years. The single danger there lies not in the possibility that failure at London will foreshadow war or even long continued naval competition; the worst that could happen is an acute exacerbation of national misunderstandings followed by a renewed misunderstanding of Europe on the part of America.

# The Use of the Laboratory Method in the Social Studies

BY C. C. CRAWFORD, UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA, AND LUCILE M. SLAGLE, UNION HIGH SCHOOL, ESCONDIDO, CALIFORNIA

Reports have been published describing actual attempts to teach the social studies in high school by laboratory methods. Also books on the teaching of social studies offer suggestions for laboratory activities to vitalize instruction. This article describes a piece of experimental research in which the investigators attempted to collect objective data regarding the relative merits of the laboratory procedure and the recitation procedure in teaching economics, history, and citizenship.

In reality three experiments were carried out, one in each of the three subjects mentioned in the above paragraph. Each experiment was of the rotation type, in which one class would use laboratory procedures while the other used the recitation method for a period of seven weeks, and then the two classes would exchange methods for the following seven weeks, thus making the experiment last for a total of fourteen weeks of the semester.

Results were measured by means of objective tests which were prepared by other teachers than the one who taught the classes in the experiment, in order that the outcome might not be vitiated by any conscious or unconscious doctoring of the type of measurement used. Five social science teachers co-operated in making the tests, each contributing a portion of the total number of questions. Furthermore, the papers were scored by another social science teacher to eliminate the possibility of prejudiced marking in the case of questions which did not have strictly objective answers.

The experiment in the economics class involved two groups of 28 students each in the twelfth grade. The United States history class contained 28 students in each group, these being eleventh-graders, and the civics class involved 23 ninth-grade students in each group.

The recitation method of teaching needs little description or explanation here because it is so common and well-known that it is familiar to all. The laboratory method, however, being somewhat new and experimental, should be described in more detail. In general the laboratory procedure involved the use of a room equipped with shelves, tables, books, maps, bulletins, and other concrete forms of materials and supplies. A definite plan or sequence of lessons was outlined, and these topics or problems were presented to the class by the teacher along with suggestions as to references or sources of materials for the necessary study. The students assembled such information as they could that bore upon the topics. They used the class periods in making plans as to where to go for additional material, or else in working over and organizing what they had already brought in. The teacher was in the background as a guide and a source

of help when needed, but the major responsibility was placed upon the students to carry on their work according to their own plans. Notebooks were kept, in which the students wrote up the results of their activities in a fashion somewhat similar to that prevailing in natural science laboratories.

Naturally, the working out of a topic would vary considerably according to the type of materials available, or the experiences of the students who were working on it. For example, in the economics class the topic of supply and demand took the direction of an investigation of the local situation as regards the price of avocados and grapes. It involved finding records of statistics on the production for a number of previous years and comparing the selling prices of the producers and the prices paid by the consumers. In a number of the undertakings the class organized itself on a committee basis to assemble the data and then finally put all their work together into a group report to present to the teacher by way of summary of their achievements. Considerable collection of raw material in the form of clippings, pictures, snap-shots, plans, charts, catalogues, maps, pamphlets, commission reports, and interviews with local officials, had to be carried out in order to work out some of the problems. Students had to make contacts with officials and attend the meetings of certain civic bodies in order to work out satisfactorily some of the problems involved in the course.

Some of the classroom or laboratory activity involved the consulting of books, the preparation of graphs and charts, the making of summaries and outlines, drawing maps, arriving at group decisions, and holding conferences with the teacher. During this time the teacher was occupied in inspection of work, suggesting changes, helping to overcome difficulties, calling attention to errors, and in certain cases conducting group activities such as making floor talks, displaying charts and graphs, or introducing the students to phases of the topic which they all seemed to have overlooked.

In general the laboratory plan might be summarized as one in which the pupils were given opportunity to investigate and work out their own plans in a creative fashion under the direction and guidance of the teacher.

## RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENT

Table I presents a brief summary of the results of all three experiments, giving the averages for each group for each method and the differences between the total results for both periods and both groups. Column 6 shows these differences, and the important thing to note is that all three favor the laboratory

method as against the recitation method. Column 7 gives the statement of chances and is to be read as follows: The chances are 3 to 1 that a repetition of this experimental procedure under conditions exactly similar to those which prevailed in the economics class would yield advantages in favor of the laboratory method, if an infinite number of students were so tested. Likewise, the chances are 121 to 1 that there is a real difference in the case of the history group, and 92 to 1 in case of the civics group. Ordinarily the chances should be considerably higher than this before we could feel that we had practical certainty, and we can therefore say simply that our present results are favorable to the laboratory method, but not sufficiently so to establish more than a probability that it would consistently prove to be more effective than the recitation method when carried out under conditions such as prevailed in this experiment.

TABLE I. COMPARISON OF RESULTS BY LABORATORY AND RECITATION METHODS

Subject (1)	Method (2)	Average for first period (3)	Average for second period (4)	Total for both periods (5)	Difference favoring labor- atory methods (6)	Chances that the difference is real *	(7)
Economics	Laboratory	38.5	49.5	88.0			
Economics	Recitation	38.5	47.3	85.8	9.2	2:1	
History	Laboratory	66.0	50.6	116.6			
History	Recitation	55.0	44.7	99.7	16.9	121:1	
Civics	Laboratory	50.6	55.0	105.6			
Civics	Recitation	44.0	40.7	84.7	20.9	92:1	

\* This column is arrived at by getting the ratio between the difference and its standard error and consulting the appropriate statistical tables.

The reader should bear in mind, however, that the laboratory method in this experiment was a new method and represented something of a radical departure from the procedures which the teacher had been using previously. It is entirely possible that after more time and practice the teacher would learn how to get better results from these relatively new and untried procedures, and thus increase the differences between the laboratory and recitation procedures. Inasmuch as the recitation type of teaching is not a new one, however, it is improbable that nearly so great improvement would take place in teaching efficiency using this procedure as time went on.

To the writers it seems that it might be very desirable to use the laboratory type of procedure even if the test results were exactly tied or even in favor of the recitation procedure, because of certain advantages in the laboratory method which do not register in the test results from such an experiment as this. It is possible that such factors as increased interest, social responsibility, co-operation, resourcefulness, initiative, etc., might more than counterbalance any differences in actual test scores. In the light of such considerations as these, therefore, the actual test score superiority of the laboratory over the recitation method becomes considerably more significant.

#### CONSIDERATIONS FAVORABLE TO THE USE OF THE LABORATORY METHOD

Some of the possible but by no means certain advantages of the laboratory plan are briefly listed in the following paragraphs:

1. It is more interesting to the students than the formal question and answer procedure.
2. It stresses problem solving rather than mere memorizing of facts.
3. It gives a chance to achieve the social or civic skill objectives of the course because it involves actual social behavior instead of mere verbal behavior.
4. It gives students practice in social co-operation in the working out of undertakings, thus preparing them for greater usefulness in social and civic life.
5. It gives an opportunity for student initiative, resourcefulness, or creativeness, to a degree not commonly found in the formal methods of teaching.
6. It puts school work on the basis of performance or actual living instead of mere information getting.
7. It transforms the class period from one for testing previous preparation into one for purposeful activity in which the pupils add something to their previous store of knowledge and ability.
8. It gives training in the type of investigation which the citizen needs to make in order to solve problems which come up in life outside of school.
9. It creates a place for the teacher as a friendly helper, guide, counsellor, instead of the natural enemy or taskmaster.
10. It offers a better opportunity for adjustment of instruction to different levels of ability than does the more formal type of instruction.

#### DANGERS, LIMITATIONS, AND DIFFICULTIES INVOLVED IN THE LABORATORY METHOD

Opposed to the advantages just mentioned are certain considerations which ought to be kept in mind to prevent an over-enthusiastic and ill-considered acceptance of this plan of teaching.

1. A great deal depends upon the kind of work done under the name of laboratory, and there is danger that the activities in the early stages of the adoption of the laboratory method may be unwisely chosen and poorly co-ordinated.
2. There is danger of confusing mere activity with sound education, or of mistaking the method for the result.
3. The laboratory method is possibly not as useful as telling or reading in situations in which getting knowledge or information forms the main aim of the lesson.
4. The students are in danger of getting off upon activities that are of only minor importance.
5. The pupils may consume a great deal of time in finding out for themselves by original investigation what they could have learned in a very short time by the customary methods of instruction.
6. Subject-matter is in danger of being neglected so that at the end of the course students do not know

as much as if they were taught by more systematic methods.

7. In so far as manual or manipulative activities are involved, there is a danger that they may be over-emphasized because they are more interesting or require less mental activity than some of the purely intellectual types of work.

8. Considerably more teacher skill is required to keep the work well organized and progressing smoothly.

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Experimental data have tended to favor the use of the laboratory method in three social science courses. There are many good theoretical reasons why we should prefer the laboratory plan of teaching. The objections and limitations which have been mentioned deserve consideration, and should serve to temper our enthusiasm with discretion, to the end that a good teaching procedure may not be rendered ineffectual through poor technique.

## Objective Testing in World History

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The purposes of this article are: (1) to present a careful analysis of data obtained from the administration of an objective achievement examination in World history in over 200 Iowa high schools; (2) to call attention to the possibilities in the matching type of test exercise for use in the social studies; (3) to compare the effectiveness of the applications of this type of test to different types of historical material; (4) to illustrate the application of an objective technique for the evaluation of individual items in an examination; and (5) to make available to the readers of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* a carefully constructed objective examination, with norms established through the testing of over 4,000 pupils.

The objective examination in World history which serves as the basis of this discussion was one of twelve objective tests used in a state-wide scholastic competition in the State of Iowa, held in the spring of 1929. This examination was administered to all of the pupils in classes in World history in each of more than 200 high schools, and involved 4,203 high school pupils. The analysis here presented is based upon random sampling of 1,002 pupils from among all those tested. Attention should be called to this large sampling, since it is because of the unusual adequacy and reliability of the statistical treatment that this article is believed to merit the consideration of all persons interested in objective testing in the social sciences. An analysis based upon so large a group of pupils is obviously almost entirely free from significant errors due to sampling or to factors characteristic only of individual schools and not to the general population, and hence the measures derived are extremely reliable.

It is not usual in an article of this description to reproduce in complete form the test used. Such a procedure, however, is felt to be justified in this instance because of the proven and unusual merit of the test itself, and because of the probability that many teachers of history will be glad to use the complete test or selected items from the test in their own teaching. The plan hereinafter followed, therefore, will be: first, to describe the general purposes and nature of the test; second, to present objective measures of the reliability of the test as a whole and

of the validity of its separate parts; third, to present the norms of achievement established for the whole test and for parts of it; fourth, to explain the technique employed in the evaluation of individual items; and finally, to present the items themselves, together with the measures of effectiveness derived for each.

#### GENERAL NATURE AND PURPOSES OF THE TEST

As has already been indicated, the test was originally constructed for use in the Iowa Academic Contest of 1929, to be administered in over 200 high schools in the state. This required careful selection from the clearly basic materials in World history, in order that the items tested might be fair to all pupils regardless of minor differences in content and procedure of teaching from school to school. It required, also, that the test be completely objective in scoring, easily administered, and limited to no more than 45 minutes of testing time. Because of these considerations, therefore, the test was limited to the measurement of the following basic abilities in history: (1) the ability habitually to associate historical events with the chronological period in which they occurred; (2) the ability to associate historical events with their geographical location; (3) the ability to associate terms with the meanings of the terms; (4) ability to associate cause and result; and (5) ability to associate historical characters with significant facts descriptive of those characters.

The abilities were tested solely through the use of the "matching exercise" type of test, thirteen such exercises, in all, being employed. Each exercise consisted of a list of ten descriptions, followed by a list of twelve terms, characters, dates, events or results. Each description was preceded by a blank in parentheses—each term by a number. The task for the student was to write in the parentheses preceding each description the number of the term to which it applied. It will be noted that the mechanical arrangement of the items reproduced here has been altered to facilitate the comparisons made.

The specific items used in the testing of each ability were carefully selected with reference to general teaching practice, and were criticized and amended from the point of view of historical accuracy and

adequacy of sampling by G. G. Andrews, Associate Professor of History in the State University of Iowa. The preliminary form of the test thus secured was then tried out in the St. Louis public school system, and carefully revised on the basis of a statistical analysis of the results of the try-out.

#### THE RELIABILITY OF THE TEST

The coefficient of reliability of the final revised edition of the test was secured by correlating the scores on odd-numbered items with scores on even-numbered items for a random selection of 300 test papers, and employing the Spearman-Brown Formula to obtain the coefficient of reliability from this correlation between "chance" halves. The coefficient of reliability thus obtained was .98. To the person at all acquainted with the coefficient of reliability as a measure of accuracy in measurement it will be evident that this test, relative to any standardized achievement test of equal length in the social sciences, has a remarkably high reliability in measurement.

#### THE RELATIVE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE VARIOUS SECTIONS

Obviously, the total score on the whole test provides a better measure of a pupil's achievement than does the score on any one part of the whole. The part whose scores shows the highest agreement with the total score is, therefore, the part that taken by itself would prove the most adequate substitute for the total. In a sense, then, the correlation between the scores on a part of the test with total scores may be taken as a measure of validity of the part. In order to provide this measure, a coefficient of correlation with total scores was computed for each part, using a random selection of 1,000 test papers. The results of these computations are given below, each part being numbered to correspond to the arrangement of the parts in the complete test presented at the end of this article.

Number of Part	Items Matched	Correlation With Total
1	Dates and Events	.51 $\pm$ .01
2	Dates and Events	.41 $\pm$ .02
3	Events and Locations	.48 $\pm$ .02
4	Events and Locations	.66 $\pm$ .01
5	Terms and Meanings	.80 $\pm$ .01
6	Terms and Meanings	.81 $\pm$ .01
7	Terms and Meanings	.88 $\pm$ .004
8	Terms and Meanings	.70 $\pm$ .01
9	Cause and Result	.62 $\pm$ .01
10	Characters and Descriptions	.72 $\pm$ .01
11	Characters and Descriptions	.55 $\pm$ .02
12	Characters and Descriptions	.75 $\pm$ .01
13	Characters and Descriptions	.60 $\pm$ .01

Only 45 minutes was allowed for the administration of the complete test. The average time allowed per part was, therefore, only 3½ minutes. In view of the brevity of each part, all of the above correlations must be considered as remarkably high. The extremely large sample used precludes the possibility of any significant sampling error in these values, as is indicated by the probable errors accompanying each correlation coefficient.

Systematic differences between types of items are made evident by the table. The sections testing the

understanding of historical terms proved to be consistently superior to the other types. One of these sections, in fact, correlate so highly (.88) with the total score that it might almost serve alone the same purpose served by the complete test. When one considers that this part may be administered in only three or four minutes and yet show so nearly perfect agreement with the total measure the result appears almost uncanny. While the data presented are hardly extensive enough to permit broad generalization, their consistency does make it appear probable that where an approximate measure of general ability in history is desired in a brief survey test, the measurement of knowledge of historical terms should receive major consideration, with perhaps knowledge of historical characters next in order of value.

#### NORMS OF ACHIEVEMENT ON THE TEST

For the convenience of those teachers who may wish to employ the test in their own classes, the following table of percentile scores is presented:

Percentile	Raw Score	Percentile	Raw Score
99	105	55	47
98	99	50	44
97	95	45	41
96	92	40	38
95	89	35	36
90	79	30	33
85	72	25	30
80	66	20	27
75	62	15	24
70	58	10	20
65	54	5	15
60	51		

A. M. of Obtained Scores = 46.8

S. D. of Obtained Scores = 22.5

The table should be read as follows: 99 per cent. of the students tested fell below a score of 105, 95 per cent. fell below 89, etc. It should be stated that these percentiles are based on a distribution of scores of over 4,200 high school pupils in the State of Iowa. They are not "end-of-the-year" norms, having been obtained one month before the close of the year—a fact of importance in applying the norms. It should be obvious that the test is sufficiently difficult to test the ability of the best students, and yet contains enough easy material to encourage efforts of inferior pupils. The highest score found in the distribution of 4,203 cases was 125, the lowest was 2.

#### RELATIVE EFFECTIVENESS OF INDIVIDUAL ITEMS

Granting that the major purpose of an achievement test is to rank the students tested along a scale of ability in the subject measured, it may be stated that each item in a test is effective for this purpose to the degree that it succeeds in discriminating between pupils of superior ability and those of inferior ability. An item answered correctly just as often by poor students as by good students is obviously of no value in achieving the purpose stated above. An item which only the superior students can answer and which is invariably missed by the poor student is that which will contribute most to the reliability of the test. On the basis of such reasoning an "index of goodness" has been devised and used by various authorities on

test construction. This index of goodness may be defined as the ratio between errors made by the upper (superior) one-fourth and by the lower (inferior) one-fourth of the pupils in the group measured, the pupils being ranked according to their scores on the total test. To say that an item has an "index of goodness" of 1.00 means, therefore, that the item was passed by as many good as poor students—in other words, it would be valueless in discriminating between pupils. An "index of goodness" of 3.00 means that the item was passed 3 times as frequently by students of the upper one-fourth of the group as by students in the lower one-fourth. Any other index may be similarly interpreted.

A rather wide experience by the authors in the use of this index has indicated that most test items fail to show an index of better than 2. Indices of above 5 have only very rarely been found in the usual run of test materials, especially when based upon sufficiently large samples to render sampling errors insignificant.

With these rather rough standards the reader may be prepared to evaluate more readily the indices computed for each of the items given below.

Each of the indices given below was based upon a random sampling of 1,000 test papers. These papers were separated into three groups according to total score: the best one-fourth (designated Q in the table), the middle one-half, and the lower one-fourth. For each group the number of correct responses was tabulated for each item, and the total correct responses for all groups and the "index of goodness" therefrom computed. These values are given, in the same order, for each of the items presented on the following pages. Since exactly 1,000 papers were analyzed, the figures in the column "Total number of Correct Responses" may be easily transposed into percentages. For example: item 1 in Part I was answered correctly by 31 per cent. of the pupils attempting it, while item 4 in the same part was answered correctly by only 10 per cent. of the pupils.

TABLE 1. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS—PART I  
WORLD HISTORY TEST

Description of Event and Date	Q4	Q2&3	Q1	Total	Index of Goodness
The Battle of Tours checked the Moslem advance in Western Europe. (732).....	131	140	39	310	3.35
At the Battle of Hastings the invading Normans defeated the Saxon Army led by King Harold. (1066).....	151	151	28	330	5.39
In this year an expedition originally headed by Magellan returned to Spain after having succeeded in circumnavigating the globe. (1522).....	139	138	24	301	5.79
King Edward I officially decreed that the representatives of the countries and the towns should meet with the nobles and the clergy in a "Model Parliament." (1295).....	41	42	20	103	2.05
The Battle of Marathon helped to decide that Greek democracy rather than Oriental despotism was to be handed on to later generations. (490 B. C.).....	155	129	18	302	8.61
By the treaty of Verdun the Empire was divided between the three grandsons of Charlemagne. (843).....	114	97	22	233	5.18
The Petition of Right declared that the consent of Parliament was necessary to all grants of money and denounced arbitrary imprisonment and other oppressive practices of Charles I. (1628).....	64	75	21	160	3.04
By the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, Louis XIV tried to compel the Huguenots to accept Catholicism. (1685).....	56	39	13	108	4.30
About this time John Gutenberg, at Mainz, produced a practical printing press. (1450).....	71	63	13	147	5.46
Being elected tribune, Tiberius Gracchus was the first man to strike at the root of the economic, moral and political decay of Italy, by trying to rebuild the farmer class. (133 B. C.).....	119	66	12	197	9.91
Extra responses: (1096) (1688)	Totals, 1,041	940	210	2,191	4.96

TABLE 2. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS—PART II  
WORLD HISTORY TEST

Description of Event and Date	Q4	Q2&3	Q1	Total	Index of Goodness
The opening of the Suez Canal greatly shortened the all-water route between England and India. (1869).....	51	33	14	98	3.64
The Bill of Rights declared certain practices "directly contrary to the known laws," and these practices were so recognized by the new rulers, William and Mary. (1689).....	97	74	22	193	4.41
By the terms of the treaty of peace, England recognized American independence and extended American territory westward to the Mississippi. (1783).....	111	65	12	188	9.25
Slavery was abolished in all the British colonies under a plan which gave partial compensation to the slave owners. (1833) .....	53	58	10	121	5.30

TABLE 2—CONTINUED

In the first partition of Poland, Austria, Prussia, and Russia took part. (1772).....	57	58	16	131	3.56
Within the British Empire the desire for Canadian union was recognized by the establishment of the Dominion of Canada. (1867).....	26	24	5	55	5.20
In their fierce struggle, both France and England issued proclamations in restraint of neutral trade. President Jefferson sought to safeguard American shipping by his Embargo Act. (1807).....	87	40	12	139	7.25
On July 14th, the Paris mob attacked the Bastille, freed the prisoners, and then razed the famous prison-fortress to the ground. (1789).....	140	118	24	282	5.83
As a result of the work of a United States fleet under Commodore Perry, a treaty was signed which secured the opening of certain Japanese ports to American trade. (1854).....	50	45	16	111	3.13
The promulgation of the Monroe Doctrine announced to the world that the United States would oppose any attempt of the European powers to extend their political systems to the Americas. (1823).....	87	64	8	159	10.88
<b>Extra responses: (1707) (1748)</b>	<b>Totals,</b>	<b>759</b>	<b>579</b>	<b>139</b>	<b>1,477</b>
					5.46

TABLE 3. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS—PART III  
WORLD HISTORY TEST

Description and Geographical Term	Q4	Number of Correct Q2&3	Responses Q1	Total	Index of Goodness
The passageway between the Caribbean and the Pacific. (Panama Canal).....	147	121	37	305	3.97
An archipelago between North and South America. (West Indies).....	125	68	10	203	12.50
The strait between the Aegean and the Sea of Marmora. (The Dardanelles).....	91	87	30	208	3.03
A sea between the Greek peninsula and Asia Minor. (Aegean Sea).....	150	257	82	489	1.83
A seaport on the Malabar coast of India. (Calicut).....	52	61	20	133	2.60
The passageway between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. (Suez Canal).....	190	263	94	547	2.02
An ancient name for a sea to the southeast of Italy. (Ionian Sea).....	148	205	53	406	2.79
A strait between the Sea of Marmora and the Black Sea. (The Bosphorus).....	87	99	25	211	3.48
A city in Bengal, India, on the Hugli River. (Calcutta).....	106	167	68	341	1.56
An equatorial archipelago in the Indian Ocean. (East Indies).....	127	111	27	265	4.70
<b>Extra responses: (Philippine Islands) (Bagdad)</b>	<b>Totals,</b>	<b>1,923</b>	<b>1,439</b>	<b>446</b>	<b>3,108</b>
					2.74

TABLE 4. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS—PART IV  
WORLD HISTORY TEST

Descriptions and Geographical Terms	Q4	Number of Correct Q2&3	Responses Q1	Total	Index of Goodness
A straight between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean. (Strait of Gibraltar).....	234	411	157	802	1.49
An ancient name for the body of water lying between the islands of Sardinia and Sicily and the Italian peninsula. (Etruscan Sea).....	214	309	82	605	2.61
A narrow strip of territory extending around the Arabian desert to the north from Palestine to the Persian Gulf. (Fertile Crescent).....	152	199	43	394	3.53
The body of water separating Ireland and Wales. (St. George's Channel).....	159	217	37	413	4.29
A city of northeastern Italy, on islands in the Adriatic. (Venice).....	191	186	41	418	4.65
A city in the west-central part of Italy on the Tiber river. (Rome).....	220	263	47	530	4.68
A sea port located in the northwestern part of Italy. (Genoa).....	190	199	35	424	5.42
The great peninsula extending southward into the Black Sea. (Crimea).....	125	109	18	252	6.94
The ancient capital of Assyria, on the Tigris river. (Nineveh).....	174	195	30	399	5.80
The most famous ancient city on the Euphrates river. (Babylon).....	177	199	49	425	3.61
<b>Extra responses: (Asia Minor) (North Channel)</b>	<b>Totals,</b>	<b>1,836</b>	<b>2,287</b>	<b>539</b>	<b>4,662</b>
					3.41

TABLE 5. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS—PART V  
WORLD HISTORY TEST

Description and Historical Term	Q4	Number of Correct Responses	Total	Index of Goodness
	Q4	Q2&3	Q1	
Native soldiers employed by the English in India. (Sepoys)	162	112	16	290
Indian rulers who had gradually become independent of the Great Mogul. (Rajahs).....	199	170	21	390
The name commonly given to the method and teachings of medieval professors. (Scholasticism).....	203	260	52	515
They believed that the great aim in life was to rise above both temporary pleasures and discomforts. (Stoics).....	115	71	7	193
A powerful and comparatively civilized tribe of South American Indians that was conquered by the Spaniards. (Incas) .....	200	198	26	424
The most famous, as well as the most powerful, of the political clubs organized during the French Revolution. (Jacobins) .....	241	301	37	579
In medieval times it was the quarter of a city inhabited by the Jews. (Ghetto).....	127	97	13	237
A system that permits no protective tariff duties to restrict international commerce. (Free Trade).....	229	299	59	587
Hungarians. (Magyars).....	143	87	9	239
Medieval trade organizations. (Guilds).....	229	249	21	499
Extra responses: (Epicures) (Durbar)	Totals, 1,848	1,844	261	3,953
				7.08

TABLE 6. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS—PART VI  
WORLD HISTORY TEST

Description and Historical Term	Q4	Number of Correct Responses	Total	Index of Goodness
	Q4	Q2&3	Q1	
A social classification, based upon birth, that exercises great influence in India. (Caste).....	193	148	16	357
The national anthem of France. (Marseillaise).....	223	257	37	517
A false science that had for its chief aims the discovery of the elixir of life and the transmutation of base metals into gold. (Alchemy).....	195	146	22	363
A fortress in Paris that served as a place of confinement for prisoners of state, and others, imprisoned by lettres de cachet. (Bastille).....	247	403	76	726
Petitions containing statements of grievances and demands for reform, that were submitted to the Estates General in 1789. (Cahiers).....	102	65	8	175
A "stroke of state" that involves the sudden overthrow or modification of an existing government. (Coup d'etat) ..	206	195	25	426
An Italian secret society whose objects were individual liberty, constitutional government, and national independence and unity. (Carbonari).....	200	143	7	350
A diplomatic alignment of nations that seeks to maintain existing conditions by combinations of so nearly equal strength that an appeal to arms would prove indecisive and costly. (Balance of Power).....	203	156	26	385
A paper currency issued during the French Revolution. The security for this currency was chiefly the land confiscated from the church. (Assignats).....	140	72	11	223
The theory that the ruler of a state was responsible for his acts to God alone, from whom he received his powers. (Divine Right of Kings).....	245	352	76	673
Extra responses: (Laissez Faire) (Ex Post Facto) Totals, 1,954		1,937	304	4,195
				6.43

TABLE 7. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS—PART VII  
WORLD HISTORY TEST

Description and Historical Term	Q4	Number of Correct Responses	Total	Index of Goodness
	Q4	Q2&3	Q1	
The papal palace at Rome. (Vatican).....	228	258	35	521
A tax that was not levied on the clergy or the nobility. (Taille) .....	174	121	27	322
The council of bishops and nobles which the Anglo-Saxon Kings of England consulted regarding important matters. (Witenagemot).....	76	37	7	120
He was the first religious teacher to express belief in a great judgment day for all mankind. (Zoroaster).....	172	268	70	510
The first history written in a modern language. (Anglo-Saxon Chronicle).....	131	126	24	281
French Protestants. (Huguenots).....	246	419	125	790
The name given by Mohammed to his new religion. (Islam) .....	220	251	32	503

TABLE 7—CONTINUED

The ancient people who first devised a system of writing containing nothing but alphabetic letters. (Phoenicians)	242	396	82	720	2.95
A feudal grant of land. (Fief).....	234	332	92	658	2.54
The penalty which the Church could inflict on a city or a country to compel obedience. (Interdict).....	83	90	24	197	3.45
Extra responses: (Vedas) (Ex-communication)      Totals, 1,806		2,298	518	4,622	3.49

TABLE 8. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS—PART VIII  
WORLD HISTORY TEST

Description and Historical Term	Q4	Number of Correct Responses Q2&3	Responses Q1	Total	Index of Goodness
A beautiful palace built by the Moors at Granada. (The Alhambra) .....	160	162	30	352	5.33
A tax levied in England to buy off the Norse invaders. (The Danegeld) .....	109	103	24	236	4.55
Languages derived from the "spoken" Latin. (Romance Languages) .....	241	448	194	883	1.24
Land cultivated for the sole use of a feudal lord. (Demesne) .....	67	42	8	117	8.37
The flight of Mohammed from Mecca in 622 A. D. (The Hegira) .....	199	218	33	450	6.03
The Christianized profession of arms. (Chivalry) .....	155	165	49	369	3.16
He went with the land when it was sold, but his land could not be taken from him. (Serf).....	229	352	126	707	1.81
The estate of a medieval land owner. (Manor).....	229	329	79	637	2.89
It prohibited fighting from Thursday night until Monday morning. (Truce of God).....	146	153	38	337	3.84
Feudal lords holding their fiefs directly from the king. (Tenants in Chief).....	176	196	40	412	4.40
Extra responses: (The Taj Mahal) (Sanskrit)      Totals, 1,711		2,168	621	4,500	2.76

TABLE 9. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS—PART IX  
WORLD HISTORY TEST

Cause and Result	Q4	Number of Correct Responses Q2&3	Responses Q1	Total	Index of Goodness
The lack of an economic and governmental organization able to suppress revolts within the country and reduce to submission the hordes that constantly drifted in from the desert. (The fall of the Assyrian Empire).....	123	129	28	280	4.39
The absence of a numerous agricultural class made it impossible to recruit a large army and necessitated reliance upon mercenary soldiers. (The final defeat of Carthage) .....	16	30	9	85	5.11
The people had learned that it was necessary to have a leader in order to secure their rights. (The beginning of the overthrow of the Roman Republic).....	11	33	11	55	1.00
The great majority of the people felt that one supreme ruler was necessary for the control of the vast dominions of the state. (The establishment of the Roman Empire)...	77	81	19	177	4.05
The people's loss of energy and self-reliance, the terrible system of taxation, the existence of slavery, the deterioration of the land, and the infiltration of barbarians were all important factors. (The decline of the Roman Empire) .....	95	112	9	216	10.56
The leaders proved to be men of great ability, and ably organized the untamed desert nomads, who now added a burning religious zeal to their wild native courage. (The conquests of Islam).....	155	116	9	280	17.92
Strife and disorder, together with the scarcity of precious metals, which forced important men and officials to accept land instead of money for services and protection, enabled many to become independent within their possessions. (The development of a powerful feudal nobility) .....	147	101	16	264	9.19
They, alone, were educated. (The great power of the churchmen in the Middle Ages).....	155	169	21	345	7.38
"Redress of grievances" was demanded by the members before they would grant the king any money. (The growth of the powers of Parliament).....	140	120	13	273	10.76
The needs of an expanding colonial empire and the natural resources which made it possible to supply these needs were, perhaps, most largely responsible for it. (The Industrial Revolution in England).....	144	120	16	280	9.00
Extra responses: (The growth of the influence of the Papacy) (The French Revolution)      Totals, 1,093		1,011	151	2,255	7.24

TABLE 10. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS—PART X  
WORLD HISTORY TEST

Description and Historical Character	Q4	Number of Correct Q2&3	Responses Q1	Total	Index of Goodness
One of his many interesting discoveries was that of specific gravity. (Archimedes).....	84	69	10	163	8.40
His ambition was to collect and state clearly the whole mass of human knowledge. (Aristotle).....	86	73	14	173	6.21
British troops under his command greatly aided the Spaniards in driving the French back over the Pyrenees. (Wellington).....	159	133	12	304	13.25
An English statesman who championed the cause of the American colonists, but bitterly attacked the French revolutionists. (Edmund Burke).....	122	76	10	208	12.20
The first Russian monarch to seriously attempt to gain an outlet to the sea. (Peter the Great).....	209	248	39	496	5.35
The conqueror who dreamed, successively, of establishing an oriental empire, a French colonial empire, and an European empire. (Napoleon I).....	218	331	61	610	3.57
He did the most to bring about the unification of Germany. (Bismarck) .....	217	339	53	609	4.07
As Lord Protector of England he exercised as autocratic powers as any Stuart king. (Cromwell).....	199	216	29	444	6.86
He was one of the first to advocate observation and experimentation as a means of enlarging the bounds of knowledge. (Francis Bacon).....	68	67	10	145	6.80
The most gifted of the pupils of Socrates, who put in writing much of his master's teachings. (Plato).....	134	202	43	379	3.11
Extra responses: (Frederick the Great) (Marlborough)					
Totals,	1,496	1,754	281	3,531	5.32

TABLE 11. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS—PART XI  
WORLD HISTORY TEST

Description and Historical Character	Q4	Number of Correct Q2&3	Responses Q1	Total	Index of Goodness
The author of the theory of evolution. (Charles Darwin) .....	200	263	67	530	2.99
The gallant adversary of Richard the Lion Hearted. (Saladin) .....	101	75	15	191	6.73
He claimed, "I am the state!" (Louis XIV).....	160	194	47	401	3.40
He invented a spinning "jenny" which enabled a worker to spin as many as ten threads at once. (James Hargreaves) .....	134	224	60	418	2.23
He patented a device operated by water power for drawing out thread by means of rollers. (Richard Arkwright) .....	96	161	48	305	2.00
Before the outbreak of the Revolution, this Frenchman was the chief advocate of placing reliance upon reason and having confidence in progress. (Voltaire).....	84	116	24	224	3.50
The most famous of medieval rulers in Europe. (Charlemagne) .....	207	358	98	663	2.11
The French philosopher who held that the source of power in a government is the people. (Rousseau).....	106	134	34	294	3.11
Her deeds of mercy as a wartime nurse caused her to be known as the "Angel of the Crimea." (Florence Nightingale) .....	229	356	131	716	1.75
He invented a loom, run by water power, which threw the shuttle and shifted the warp for itself. (Dr. Cartwright) .....	101	167	49	317	2.06
Extra responses: (Genghis Khan) (Joan of Arc)      Totals,	1,418	2,068	573	4,059	2.47

TABLE 12. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS—PART XII  
WORLD HISTORY TEST

Description and Historical Character	Q4	Number of Correct Q2&3	Responses Q1	Total	Index of Goodness
She encouraged disorders in Poland and tried to prevent improvements in order to more easily despoil that unhappy country. (Catherine the Great).....	218	293	84	595	2.59
In the <i>Dictatus</i> he claimed the complete supremacy of the Pope over all temporal rulers as well as over the Church. (Gregory VII) .....	187	170	26	383	7.19
He led his army through southern Gaul, crossed the Alps, and attacked Italy from the north. (Hannibal).....	221	286	59	566	3.74
He objected to governmental restrictions on trade and industry. (Adam Smith).....	96	77	15	188	6.40
He advocated that the excess public lands be divided into small holdings and given to poor applicants. (Tiberius Gracchus) .....	87	103	23	213	3.78

TABLE 12—CONTINUED

A leader in France during the French Revolution who was responsible for the death of Danton. (Robespierre)...	222	293	47	562	4.72
He formed the Quadruple Alliance in order to prevent democratic or what he called revolutionary movements in Europe. (Prince Metternich).....	200	179	21	400	9.52
During that sovereign's eventful reign England attained a supremacy on the sea that she has maintained, with but few serious interruptions, to the present day. (Queen Elizabeth) .....	224	308	69	601	3.24
He was victorious at the battles of the Granicus, Issus, and Arbela. (Alexander the Great).....	162	121	31	314	5.22
Under his leadership the years between 445 and 431 B. C. are known as the Golden Age of Athens. (Pericles)....	184	210	36	430	5.11
Extra responses: (Queen Anne) (Robert Owen)      Totals, 1,801	2,040	411	4,252	4,38	

TABLE 13. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS—PART XIII  
WORLD HISTORY TEST

Description and Historical Character	Q4	Q2&3	Q1	Number of Correct Responses	Total	Index of Goodness
His teachings are recorded in the Koran. (Mohammed)...	240	312	68	620	3.53	
The discoverer of the law of gravitation. (Newton).....	220	315	101	636	2.18	
He ruled in Babylon about 2100 B. C. (Hammurabi).....	183	189	30	402	6.10	
He inherited Normandy and conquered England. (William the Conqueror).....	223	343	74	640	3.01	
The author of the <i>Praise of Folly</i> , a satire on the dogmas and practices of the Catholic Church prior to the Reformation. (Erasmus).....	162	162	30	354	5.40	
The inventor of the spinning "mule." (Samuel Crompton) ..	197	305	112	614	1.76	
The leader of the third Persian invasion of Greece. (Xerxes) .....	179	173	40	392	4.48	
He constructed the first railroad, between Stockton and Darlington, in northern England, a distance of twelve miles. (George Stephenson).....	204	269	77	550	2.64	
He was the great leader of the Protestant Reformation in the German states. (Luther).....	237	378	102	717	2.32	
He excelled as a soldier, statesman, reformer and author, and was, perhaps, the greatest figure produced by the Roman world. (Julius Caesar).....	241	404	134	779	1.79	
Extra responses: (Kay) (Alfred the Great)      Totals, 2,086	2,850	768	5,704		2.72	

## Civics a la Carte

BY JENNIE L. PINGREY, HIGH SCHOOL, HASTINGS-UPON-HUDSON, N. Y.

I really enjoyed my experiment in civics class this year. Each year I try to use a different method of teaching, partly because it seems to me that the subject as a junior high school course has not yet been thoroughly defined or definitely limited. This year, when I met my new class of fifty-five, mostly ninth graders, I threw away all prudence and said, "What do you want Hastings High School to teach you? If you were to graduate tomorrow and start out in the world, what things would you wish you knew? Maybe the school doesn't teach just what you need. Think it over and tell me tomorrow." I might have been told almost anything after that broad invitation, for I didn't even do any suggesting except to mention "Manners" as a possibility to give them an idea that one might leave the familiar high school curriculum. But probably the natural conservatism of the majority, combined with rumors of what my classes had studied before, tended to limit the field.

Here is what I got:

- "What I want H. H. S. to teach me:
- 1. To know how to take care of the yard and home that I live in.
- 2. How to be thrifty.
- 3. How to find a good job.
- 4. To be able to think clearly, so that we can meet every-day problems.
- 5. How to be courteous.
- 6. How we can keep a city or town attractive.
- 7. Dependability.
- 8. To give everyone a square deal.
- 9. To teach us not to destroy other people's property.
- 10. To have a neat personal appearance.
- 11. To know the health regulations.
- 12. How to speak good English.
- 13. How to be polite.
- 14. Duties of public offices.

15. Why we want to be thrifty.
16. How to be friendly.
17. Public speaking—the ability to say something.
18. To be punctual.
19. Honesty.
20. Sportsmanship.
21. To know something about the laws.
22. True patriotism.
23. Reasons for political parties and how they work."

The class discussed the possible groupings of these topics. I arbitrarily ruled 4, 7, 16, and 18 as subjects which I couldn't teach in class in definite assignments, and 12 and 17 as primarily the work of other departments. We finally decided upon the following outline, which was then copied in each pupil's looseleaf notebook:

#### CIVICS INDEX

- I. About yourself.
  1. How to choose a job.
  2. How to apply for a job.
  3. Personal appearance.
  4. Politeness.
  5. Honesty and sportsmanship.
  6. Why you should be thrifty.
  7. How to be thrifty.
- II. About your neighbors.
  1. Keeping your place attractive.
  2. Making your community attractive.
    - a. Planning a city.
    - b. Making and keeping streets.
    - c. Parks.
    - d. Health.
    - e. Schools.
    - f. Government.
  3. A glimpse of larger communities; what they do for us and what we do for them.
    - a. Town.
    - b. County.
    - c. State.
    - d. Nation.
- III. What it means to be an American.
  1. Ways of becoming a citizen.
  2. Privileges of American citizens.
  3. Duties of American citizens.

We started by discussing various jobs and then we summarized in our notebooks the points which one should consider in choosing a job. Next, the members of the class, separately or in groups of their own selection, impersonated employer and applicant, and demonstrated how applications should and should not be made. Each summarized his conclusions in his notebook; gum chewing was the most commonly observed fault.

The assignment for I3 was to bring to class a list of points to be considered in personal appearance and to be prepared to discuss them. There was hardly enough difference of opinion in the class to stimulate discussion, but there was at least a wide variety of suggestions, from, "Dress as nearly up-to-date as you can," to "Don't wear run-over heels." There were more or less subdued chuckles when one

bold girl wrote on the board, "Dress inconspicuously," for I was wearing a brilliant blazer!

There was a choice of assignment for I4. A few wrote on, "The Most Polite Person I Ever Knew," but most of them made "Ten Rules of Politeness for My Brother." Most of the points were obviously repetitions of parental admonitions, but a few pupils equally obviously had never had such admonitions. The discussion was good and, I thought at the time, as complete as could be expected from children of that age. It was, therefore, unpleasantly jarring to have one of the girls ask me, a month later, if she couldn't change her seat because Pat picked his teeth in class!

When it came to I5, I gave the pupils page references to certain questions in their textbooks—Hughes's *Community Civics*—such as: page 95, "Is a person a good citizen who tries to evade a quarantine?" and page 396, "What is the duty of a good citizen with reference to this law (Volstead Act) or any other?" Discussion by various members of the class was sincere and thoughtful and as profound as could be expected from juveniles. They were most interested in discussing sportsmanship in basketball, as the season was opening.

Similar methods were used in developing the other topics, with the addition of special speakers such as a recent high school graduate who told about her work in the bank (I7), the accommodating village clerk who gave information on II2 a, c, and f, and a lawyer who gave a clear explanation of I 3, c. Topic III was of particular interest in this community with its high percentage of foreign born, for naturalization was to many of the pupils a vivid process about which they could enlighten me with personal anecdotes.

Such was the term's work, and I liked it. As for results, I believe no one can adequately measure the result from each activity and I can estimate less than many. That the pupils will be well rounded men and women, partly as a result of this course, I hope; that they will be more immediately prepared to meet the world adequately, I believe. Possibly the school itself has been somewhat affected, for there are plans for securing a capable speaker to address all the girls on the subject of personal appearance, and there has been more definite work in courtesy instruction.

P. E. Matheson reminiscences about old Oxford in the December *National Review*. Oxford in his day, the late seventies, was gathering strength to take a new step forward. Many of those who shared in the movement for expansion have passed from the scenes; others are living on their memories and watching a new and noisier world. Much has changed in the intervening decades. Women have been admitted to the University; motors have made life faster and more perilous; the tranquil life is less easy to attain. But Oxford is more accessible to the Schools, and to all classes of Great Britain and the Dominion. It offers more encouragement to research; its conception of science and of scholarship is more human and its sympathies in general are wider. Whether it will give to public life men as memorable as those fifty years ago, the future alone can determine.

# Experimenting with a Fusion Course in Social Science in Grades VI, VII and VIII

BY BERTHA MONTGOMERY, CLINTON, ILLINOIS

An experiment is usually based upon needs that have been shown by a survey. What are Clinton's needs for the elementary schools?

Clinton is a typical small town and it is safe to say, by and large, its needs are those of other small town communities. It is a town of homes and churches, where the masses find employment in the Illinois Central shops. But there is no industrial or commercial growth. Hence, the younger and more energetic usually go to the cities and those who remain, comparatively speaking, resent change.

In formal education the masses in Clinton rank with the masses elsewhere in the United States. They have less than high school attainments. How are these human beings whose formal education ended in the sixth, seventh and eighth grades functioning? And how much did we of the elementary schools contribute to their lives, that can function in this machine age of radio, television, vitaphone, gliders and zeppelins? What are their interests and ideals? What traces, if any, can one find of the facts, skills and attitudes that we attempt to teach them in the elementary schools?

What are these farmers, grocers, butchers and shopmen doing with the tool subjects that we taught them? Do they add, subtract and multiply? They have machines to do that. Do they write well? They use typewriters. Do they enjoy good music? They listen to barn dances and jazz. Do they read? Their libraries consist of a few ornamental gift books, with pages uncut. Do they use good English? They speak Americano.

What is left of the minimum essentials of geography? They know considerable physical and economic geography, but it was not learned in schools; a spirit of adventure and a good thumb, or one payment on a car takes them from coast to coast. Do they know history? Little past history has been retained, and only such current history as can be learned from headlines and picture sections of our newspapers. Do they vote? In our democracy, the efficiency of which depends on the intelligent use of the franchise, only 52 per cent. vote unless an appeal is made to their prejudices.

Do they go to church? In this day current orthodoxy has no appeal. The masses are indifferent or they scoff at the services in the churches and call it the "bunk." The movies have them on Sundays as devotees singing maudlin twaddle.

Are they tolerant? In Clinton, the Ku Klux Klan was strong enough to elect some members of the board of education. Wops, Jews and Catholics, on the whole, are scorned or feared. Columbus, Steinmetz, Caruso and Jesus, relatively speaking, have not registered in their lives.

Who are we teachers of the elementary schools who have attempted to give these masses right habits, tool subjects and some facts and ideals? Our state department of education says that 52 per cent. of us in Illinois have less than high school education. DeWitt County ranks as low as fifty-two in educational equipment, including such factors as teacher preparation, length of school term, salaries, et cetera.

With these facts in mind, may we not ask, "What can we teach?" Are we equipped to teach facts? And does it seem possible or probable that we have even given the masses the basis for their robust frankness, their intellectual honesty and their zest for life—these virtues that should be hitched to ideals.

On the whole we teachers are diplomatic, rather than frank, we are discreet rather than intellectually honest and our zest for life has been largely sublimated. We thumb our way only in books.

It must have been some such informal survey of conditions two years ago that led to the conclusion in Clinton, that a change would be wholesome. The outstanding need obviously was for better trained teachers. But to make immediate changes in a teaching personnel, largely home talent, presented obstacles that could not be overcome. To increase the teaching efficiency of the present personnel, then became the objective.

This was attempted by making four departures from past procedure. First, the subjects of the sixth, seventh and eighth grades were grouped into departments. If a teacher had fewer subjects to teach, it seemed reasonable to expect better daily lesson preparations.

Second, a course of study, worked out in great detail, was provided. This course aims to help teachers by citing them to content material to enlarge their own information. It gives specific references by pages and chapters and authors for student use. It points out, for each unit to be taught, the standard of attainments that the teacher should achieve for factual knowledge, for attitudes and for ideals.

Third, a course was provided aiming specifically at the development of good citizens. The objective is to grow human beings with a desire for facts, with some skill in obtaining them, and with ideals. This course was called social science and the content material was chosen from geography, history and civics, disregarding entirely the artificial boundaries often set up between these subjects.

Fourth, to make a larger quantity of attractive reading available, new books were provided for room libraries. These included Compton's *Encyclopedia*, Rugg's pamphlets, Hill's *Community Civics*, Woodburn and Moran's *Active Citizenship*, Halleck and

Frantz's *American History*, Beard and Bagley's *Introduction to American History*, Huntington and Cushing's *Modern Business Geography*, James Chamberlain's *Geography*, the *World Almanac* and Packard and Sinnott's *Nations as Neighbors*. In my own room I have 400 volumes which the children helped to catalogue.

These four changes were not presented as a magical scheme that would, presto, produce a new type of boy or girl equipped for social usefulness. We are not jugglers. It is hoped that these changes will force poorly prepared and sluggish teachers out of their comfortable grooves of assignment by pages and paragraphs and a slavish devotion to the content of one text. The wealth of material presented in the course by specific references for every element of learning, is enough to test the mettle of the best equipped teacher. It is hoped that this teacher stimulation will re-act favorably upon the boys and girls.

In the limited space no attempt will be made to give the historical background of the Clinton course, other than to say that in Chicago, St. Louis, Cleveland, Denver, Cicero, Winnetka, and in a number of other places, there has been for some time a tendency to disregard traditional divisions between the subject-matter of history, geography, and civics. Integration, co-ordination or unification are the tendencies rather than separation. An increasing emphasis on attitudes, habits and skills rather than on memorizing facts, is also evident. There is nowhere the illusion of finality. All life is changing. Courses of study are a part of life. When they cease to change they are dead.

The idea back of the fusion or unified course is that one can function effectively as a social human being only if one understands modern life and how it came to be. To understand the conditions and the institutions existing today, the mind must use facts, events, historical movements and generalizations, that come from all three subjects—geography, history, and civics. Political history, how things happened, depends on economic history which tells why things happened. Or in other words, history and government are largely the story of the human race in terms of soils, harbors, oil, wheat, cotton and iron. For example, to understand the Westward Movement involves a study of North America and of the United States; the influence of soil, rivers, harbors, mountains, deserts and climate upon how people live and where they locate and travel. How else can one get the why and where of the blazing trails, the development of new land and waterways and the rise of cities behind the frontiers? In the technique of government, the western drive is closely related to such democratic innovations as the direct election of United States senators, woman's suffrage, the initiative, referendum and recall, and to the growth of nationalism.

The physiographic factors and natural resources must be brought into close relationship with man's social and political points of view and with the in-

stitutions he has developed, because they in large measure explain why these viewpoints and institutions obtain. This is, on the whole, the viewpoint of those who do not favor separate courses in geography, history, and civics.

In Clinton all the offerings in the social science course are organized upon units of understanding rather than upon geographical or political units. For the sixth grade there are two presented: *Early Homes and Civilizations of the White Races* and *Later Homes and Civilizations of the White Races*. These units involve the history of the origin and growth of white civilizations, the geography of Europe and European possessions, and the governmental milestones in democracy in the old world.

For the seventh grade the course also provides two units of work. The *Westward Movement and the Industrial Development in the United States* and *America Develops a Federal System*. These units bring into close relationship the history of the white races in America, the geography of North America, the United States and her colonial possessions, and the outcomes of experiments in democratic government in America.

In the eighth grade we also have two units. The *World at Work and Community Life*. The subject-matter includes a study of our changing agricultural nations, Asia, South America, Mexico and Central America, the primary fields of production, transportation, manufacturing and consumption, and community and governmental civics.

The classes in social science meet daily for ninety-minute periods, and frequently perform various activities other than listening and reading. These include letter writing to other countries, keeping travel cards and making travel reports, personal interviews with individuals doing important work, open forum discussions, debates, classroom organization, simple parliamentary procedure, special reports, dramatization of historical events, mock trials, changing the bulletin board material, and making charts and maps and discussing current events.

Letters from other countries give a more enduring interest than bookwork alone. By means of letters the major geographic facts about a region are experienced with a degree of reality that approximates the result of a visit to that region. We received replies from Canada, Panama, Germany, Danzig, Egypt and South America, last year, and hope to extend the list this year.

Travel cards and reports on trips seem to lead to keener observation and a search for real values. Clinton is favorably located so that one-day trips to Chicago and to St. Louis are possible. Railroad passes permit many families to make these trips frequently. Visits to parks, museums, art institutes, packing plants, and stock shows have been reported, as well as trips by students to New York, Washington, Montreal, Yellowstone Park, Grand Canyon, and such local places as Starved Rock, Vandalia, Jacksonville, Springfield, Lewistown, Old Salem, and others. Pictures, kodak views and maps are studied in connection

with these trips for the pleasure they give in additional information.

Class organization is left to pupil activity. They elect their own officers, such as chairman, librarian and sergeant-at-arms. They have complete charge during indoor recesses on stormy days, and usually convert the session into a story-telling period. This helps to develop greater self-confidence and some initiative.

Since the pupil learns most effectively in situations that are most real to him, we dramatize some simple historical events. Our costumes are always planned to consume the minimum of time and expense. A paper crown, a sword, some turkey feathers, make interest more complete. Court procedure in the book is a bore, but to try a classmate for boot-legging is an interesting game. In preparing special reports the pupils are given a limited choice from a list of subjects presented in the course. A pupil making an especially fine report is sometimes permitted to give it again before another group of children.

Other speakers, besides the teacher, are provided for listening and questioning activities. To help assimilate the fundamental purpose of taxation into their own experiences, the children were asked to bring their parents' tax receipts to school. We verified the total amounts and indicated the sums that went for various purposes. To read about taxation for the support of schools was one thing, but to find out how much dad gave to the schools of Clinton was quite another affair. At the close of our study the county treasurer came to answer questions and to contribute from his experience.

Sympathetic tolerance, understanding and appreciation of other races and of our foreign-born citizens are greatly desired and hard to attain. A Jew was asked to share with us some episodes and experiences from his trip around the world. He talked on Japan after we had completed our bookwork on the subject. After a study of Sweden, an engineer of Swedish birth gave us a more vivid picture of life in Sweden. Incidentally, the students were reminded that when a man educated in a foreign country speaks our language incorrectly, it is not an indication of ignorance as it is when we, who are Americans by birth, use it incorrectly. The process of naturalization was made more real when a member of the class reported how his Hungarian neighbor became a citizen.

A minister and his wife who had lived in India six years helped to make India more real for the students and teacher by dressing in costume, displaying exhibits, and by a talk followed by a question period.

Current events day is interesting. Our aim is to have a minimum of human interest stories and a maximum of socially significant events. We discuss such problems as prison riots, propaganda in the senate and elsewhere; smuggling liquor, building Boulder Dam, canal surveying in Nicaragua, et cetera.

The Junior Review has proved helpful in teaching current history. Its presentation of the League of Nations, the tariff legislation and other problems has seemed logical. It is sometimes put into the hands

of the pupils and at other times they choose their own events from other sources. The monthly tests that come with the Junior Review have been used as a teaching rather than a testing device. Newspaper clippings of importance are filed for future reference.

The English department uses some of the content material from social science for composition work and for a newspaper project. This means a repetition of episodes and of facts which is wholesome.

That the experiment in Clinton has brought new life into the teaching process is evident. But there is still much to be desired. Changes that would improve our work in social science, include besides better training for teachers, first, the housing of all sixth, seventh and eighth grades in one building as one type of junior high. Then each teacher could teach her own subject to one grade in which students could be equated for ability.

Second, the use of films and the radio in the schoolroom would be a powerful agency to counteract the influence of the nauseating offerings at the commercial theaters.

Third, more manual work is needed for boys and girls who do not respond to the offerings in our present course and who must now be retained until sixteen years of age.

Fourth, the development of definite tests for attitudes and character development are greatly needed. Professor Howard C. Hill, University of Chicago, has made a beginning, but he has only one test for attitudes and one for civic action. Dozens are needed.

Teachers of elementary, secondary and higher schools are alike in one respect. All take character and attitudes as their chief objectives, but all test for retention of facts, with an occasional question involving reasoning. How do we know that we are developing integrity, honesty and sincerity in the hundreds whom we teach? What tests do we have to find out if we have attained refined sentiments, healthy imaginations, delicacy, tenderness, generosity of mind? Practically none, except to wait and watch in the years to come. In the words of Carl Sandburg, "human beings are like trees,—life, wind, rain, lightning, events, will tell their fiber, what is clean or rotten."

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In the January *Asia*, Arnold Toynbee revisits Turkey and tells of his experiences. He dwells especially on the survivals, the old charming manners, their preference for soft drinks, and for good food. The greatest changes are in the status of women, the substitution of the Latin for the Arabic alphabet, and the introduction of a social order exceedingly solid and constructive.

The abolition of extra-territoriality threatened and partially performed by the Nanking Nationalist Government has meant heavy losses to Britain and will mean even greater disaster. Consequently at present, the Government of England cannot regard the situation without dismay. All this talk of a strong united China is palpably absurd, as the state of the country is too chaotic to make that possible; Robert Machray writes of the situation there in the January *Fortnightly Review* and frankly calls it dark and foreboding.

# A Celebration of the Lindbergh Flight

BY ALBERT A. ORTH, TERRE HAUTE, INDIANA

No subject in Social Science has a more general appeal to junior high school age pupils at the present time than that of aviation. Probably, no one person is better known and more admired by students of these grades than Colonel Lindbergh. Because of these attitudes on the part of students in the McLean Junior High School, it was felt that a celebration of Lindbergh's flight to Paris would be a suitable way to correlate their interest in aviation with the practical work in Social Science which they had been doing.

At the beginning of the second semester, in January, 1929, an organization of the students in one section of 7A had been formed. This organization existed primarily for drill in parliamentary practice and for conducting various enterprises to raise money for the purchase of additional equipment for their Social Science work.

Early in May, the subject of a suitable commemoration for the Lindbergh anniversary was presented by their teacher, who also suggested indirectly a way in which such an occasion might be observed. After discussion in several meetings of the organization, it was finally decided that their organization should sponsor an exhibit of model airplanes which would be open to the seventh-grade students. Further plans made by the class organization provided that each student entering a model airplane should pay an entry fee of five cents, this money to be used in defraying the expenses of the exhibit. It was also decided to award prizes to those models which should be judged best. Because of the fact that the space for the exhibition of the models was necessarily limited, it was considered advisable not to open the exhibit to the entire school. However, many students, not members of the seventh grade, would have exhibited models if the opportunity had been given them.

The dates chosen for the exhibit were the actual anniversary days of Lindbergh's flight to Paris, May 20 and 21. Fortunately for the class, these were also the days of a school exhibit which made it possible for many parents and outsiders to see the display.

Members of the class helped to advertise the exhibit by appearing before other sections in their home rooms to describe the plans for the occasion, and by making posters which were placed on the school bulletin boards. Other members of the class assisted in decorating the room and in placing the models as they were received. The treasurer of the organization received the entry fees and issued receipts to the exhibitors. Other members of the class acted as guides in the room and also helped by seeing that the models were not handled or damaged by visitors.

Large pictures and pages from such newspapers as the *New York Times*, describing the accomplishments of Lindbergh and other noted aviators were displayed in the room. During the class periods on the days of the exhibit, the Victor records of the

Lindbergh reception in Washington, in June, 1927, were played. Newspaper accounts of Lindbergh's flight and other famous achievements in aviation were read to the students. To many students, these were new and novel, because they had not saved such papers in their own homes.

All told about twenty airplanes were exhibited. Many of these were made by the students themselves without outside help, while others were constructed with the assistance of parents or older brothers.

While the amount of money received through entry fees was not sufficient to pay all the prizes which were awarded, the organization used funds which had been raised at other times. By doing this it was possible to award a first, second, and third prize in each of two classes of planes. The exhibits were grouped into large models and small models. A mechanic from the local airport at Dresser Field, gave his time free for the judging of the models. Further interest was stimulated and the winners made happy by the fact that one of the local newspapers sent its staff photographer to make a picture of the airplanes and their owners.

No accurate check was made as to the number of persons who saw the models. However, interest was aroused to such an extent that nearly every student of the school visited the exhibit at least once and in some cases other teachers brought entire classes.

After the models had been taken home by their owners and a chance had been given the teacher to think over the project, it seemed that such an observance of an important anniversary had had much greater value than the common, stereotyped plan of reciting poems or giving readings or other similar means for observing special days. Attention was called to the importance of aviation, a subject of much local interest at the time, with the proposition of buying a municipal airport before the city. Parents were attracted to the school and to the History room and by coming, interest was aroused in the work being done in Social Science. The home room organization gained valuable experience in the planning and conducting of such an activity.

If such a project should be carried out again plans for the exhibit would be made early in the second term, since by announcing it several months in advance many students would have a better opportunity to construct models. Additional display space could be secured providing room for all students who cared to enter a model. Additional time could also be given to preparatory work in the regular Social Science instruction and in the weekly current events period which would pave the way for greater interest. It is the opinion of the writer, that such a project could be made into a very fitting celebration of this anniversary, well correlated with actual work in recent United States history.

# Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

The study of civics in the schools has been the subject of much discussion in recent years, particularly in view of the many ramifications in types of courses of study which have been developed to meet varying needs. Arold W. Brown, in *The Improvement of Civics Instruction in Junior and Senior High Schools* (Ypsilanti, Mich.: Standard Printing Co., 1929, 102 pp.), presents a rather detailed sketch of the "History of Civics," divided into three periods: 1890, 1890-1910, and 1910 to the present time. The discussion of each period is centered about the consideration of representative changes in the life of the period, the influence of committees which reported their deliberations and programs, and textbooks which were published. Four major aims for the teaching of civics are set forth, with supporting quotations from the pedagogical literature. There is an analysis of six textbooks in advanced civics, and three for problems of democracy. The author uses the main headings of the Munro Committee report to the American Political Science Association (1921) for the presentation of his findings, and also reproduce the outline of this report as his program for a course in advanced civics.

Three final chapters are devoted to general considerations of citizenship training in the schools, and civics in the junior and senior high schools. There is a bibliography, but no index is provided.

Two experiments in the teaching of the social sciences are reported in Harl R. Douglass, ed., *Controlled Experimentation in the Study of Methods of College Teaching* (University of Oregon Publication, Education Series, Vol. I, No. 9, February, 1929). In Donald G. Barnes and Harl R. Douglass, "The Value of Extra Quiz Sections in the Teaching of History," the sections in English history were scheduled and all factors controlled, with the exception that one section, in addition to the regular lectures, met once each week in small groups for discussion and quizzing. Data for students on psychological tests were available. An objective test of 200 items was administered at the beginning and close of the course. Students were praised on the basis of percentile rank on marks in order to eliminate so far as possible the effect of differences in the sections. Data are presented in four tables. The findings disclose that the added hour per week given to quiz sections had no significant value. The results on the objective test do not disclose significant differences in favor of either plan.

Victor P. Morris and Harl R. Douglass, "The Relative Effectiveness of the Problem and Lecture Methods of Instruction in Principles of Economics," is a report of an experiment involving students enrolled in two sections. Students for whom scores on psychological tests were available were paired on this basis (12 pairs), while other students were paired on the average university grades for the preceding term (30 pairs). An objective test of 344 items was administered. Data are presented in three tables. Findings show a gain of 7.8 points (11.4 per cent.) in favor of the problem method, using data for students paired on scores on the psychological test. Students paired on the basis of the average grades of the previous term, on the other hand show a gain of 14.4 units (22.2 per cent.) in favor of the lecture method. The average mean score is almost identical for the two methods when the results for both groups are assembled together.

The Morrison plan of teaching or the mastery technique has attracted much attention, and along with all other progressive plans, its use has necessitated more adequate library facilities. That librarians are not unaware of this feature of the plan is indicated by Elizabeth Madison, who contributes "Adjustment of a School Library to Meet the Morrison Plan of Teaching," in the January issue of *Calif-*

*fornia Quarterly of Secondary Education.* The plan strengthens the main library, requires careful planning of the library schedule, necessitates classroom librarians, the setting up of book units to accompany each unit, and more careful selection of books and materials. The plan stimulates greater use of the library, and benefits the poor student. The librarian must understand the objectives of this plan of instruction, organize group meetings with principal and teachers to plan the purchase of materials and to organize and administer routine plans for the routing of materials to and from classroom libraries, supervise the operation of the system, lead in the teaching of library methods for teachers, enrich and interpret the collections of materials available for use by teachers and pupils, and develop a Library Use course for guidance to library procedures. Such a course is now used in Oakland.

In the same issue Thomas B. MacQuiddy discusses "The State and the Social Science Curriculum." While there is now a one-year minimum requirement of United States history and civics in California, usually offered at the eleventh or twelfth grade levels, the minimum requirement should be a ninth-grade offering. A number of curriculum problems are discussed.

E. R. Yarham, in "History and the Folk Museum," in the January issue of *Education Outlook* (London), mentions that the best museum is that made by the children. A larger museum, however, is desirable, and the museums at Hull and Norwich are mentioned as fine larger collections for use in teaching history. Ways in which museums co-operate are outlined. Preparation of the teacher before the visit and a notebook for each pupil are essential elements.

Helen Corke, in the same issue, contributes "Internationalism and the Teaching of History." The assertion is made that the majority of English children are studying an account of the development of the British people, and are gaining, as a result, a narrow and disproportioned view of human affairs. While it is generally admitted that there is an interdependence between nations, and while the citizens of tomorrow will need to judge policies from an international point of view, children are still provided with an education which develops judgment with a national bias and limited vision. While the reports of committees of the Board of Education deplore the limited outlook and intensive treatment of narrow fields, the teachers, apparently because of their training, seem unable to make the broader applications of the recommended changes in point of view, some of which are not always consistent.

The major features of a field course in the study of geography are described by Selma Abrams, in the January issue of *The Journal of Geography*, in a "Summary of the First Summer Field Course in High School Geography of the New Orleans Public Schools." The preliminary features of the organization of the plan are described. A group of eight students made the trip to Cuba and Honduras. An outline of lesson topics, the plan for daily lessons on board ship, conclusions concerning the educational value of the course, and plans for future courses are included.

In the same issue Pauline R. Powers contributes "Approaches to a Fifth Grade Study of India."

In the January issue of *The Detroit Educational Bulletin*, C. C. Barnes contributes "The School Election Project." For ten years the Detroit schools have been holding elections at the time of the city elections, using a printed ballot which is a duplicate of the regular city ballot. On November 5, 1929, 85,952 pupils above the fifth grade participated in the election. The percentage of re-

turns for two candidates for mayor on the school vote varied less than 1 per cent. from the city vote. The objectives in holding a school election are stated, and representative opinions from pupils and one principal are cited.

With the increasing interest in the teaching of the social studies and the voluminous amount of material published in pedagogical journals, teachers who wish to keep informed concerning trends welcome bibliographies. Edgar C. Bye, *A Bibliography on the Teaching of the Social Studies* (Worcester, Mass.: Clark University, 1929. 51 pp. 25 cents), is a handy and usable collection of the most pertinent references to books and periodical literature on the subject. The material is arranged under appropriate headings, and includes finding lists of professional periodicals. Many of the titles are briefly annotated, and significant titles in the general field of education are included. The material is arranged under appropriate headings, and includes finding-lists of professional organizations, professional magazines, and publishers. Teachers, instructors in the teaching of the social studies will find the pamphlet usable, and student teachers and prospective teachers will find it indispensable.

Sarah Janet Bassett, in "Factors Influencing Retention of History in the Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Grades," in the December issue of *Journal of Educational Psychology*, reports certain data for 1,364 pupils, 729 boys and 635 girls. History tests, sample items of which are included, were administered at four-month intervals. Nine factors were studied in order to ascertain their influence on retention. Findings include: (1) there is relatively high correlation between retention and interest and effort, and ability as measured by the Pressey-Richards History Test; (2) a positive, but low, relationship exists between retention and mental age, reading comprehension, and subject preference; (3) there is a consistently negative relationship between retention and chronological age; (4) boys show a slight superiority over girls in retention of history.

In the January issue of *Normal Instructor and Primary Plans*, Mary G. Kelty, in "The Special Vocabulary of History," outlines the problems of the teacher as follows: (1) a realization of the difficulties of the special vocabulary; (2) ability to distinguish between minimal-essential elements of the special vocabulary and those elements which may be ignored; (3) the marking of the minimum list of terms in such a way as to distinguish between (a) terms whose meaning may be grasped from the context, (b) terms which may be explained in one or more sentences, and (c) terms which require direct teaching. In the same issue DeForest Stull discusses "The Relation of Geography to Other Subjects," in which he points out the close relationship between history and geography. Emerol Stacy, in the February issue in "History Teaching and Children's Books," outlines some of the important relationships between extensive reading and a grasp of history, and includes lists of titles grouped according to types.

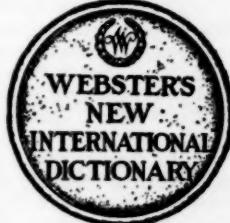
Luvella J. Kregel, in "The Teaching of Co-operation as a Practical Ideal," in the January issue of *Educational Method*, outlines a philosophy of co-operation, and suggests methods of teaching co-operation, including the teaching of situations centered about desirable traits, the experiencing of trait reactions in co-operative enterprises, and the use of self-rating analysis scales. A copy of a rating scale with twenty items is included.

In the January issue of *Education*, Leland DeWitt Baldwin contributes "What I Have Learned in Seven Years of Teaching High School History." Written in an informal and realistic style, the account bristles with direct and indirect thrusts at some of the weaknesses and shortcomings of the public high school. Despite the acid of discontent which emerges in this informal presentation, the writer portrays many of the major difficulties encountered by teachers of history.

The Tenth Annual Conference of Teachers of History and the Social Studies in High School and College was held at the University of Iowa, February 7th-8th. The following persons contributed to the program: Howard C. Hill, University of Chicago, "Combining European and American History"; DeWitt S. Morgan, Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, "Writing or Learning"; Louis Pelzer, "Selection and Rejection in American History"; Charles E. Payne, Grinnell College, "The Teacher of History and American Foreign Relations"; Harry Grant Plum, "History: The Spirit and the Method"; Frank H. Hodder, University of Kansas, "Something about History"; H. J. Thornton, "Whither Big Business?"; C. W. de Kiewiet, "Trusteeship or Self-Government?"; Arthur M. Schlesinger, Harvard University, "The City in American History."

The sessions were held in the Old Capitol on the University Campus. A tea and a dinner afforded an opportunity for those in attendance to become acquainted. Each year the conference is attended by increasing numbers of teachers and professors from Iowa and adjoining states.

*The Sones-Harry High School Achievement Test* (World Book Co.), by W. W. D. Sones and David P. Harry, Jr., contains a section of interest to teachers of the social studies in "Part IV. Social Studies." This part of the test contains ten sections entitled "Civic Information (2 sections), "Famous Americans," "The Background of American Civilization," "Events in American History," "Famous Characters of World History," "International Affairs," "Place Geography," "Names Associated with Economics," and "Economic Vocabulary and Arguments." The test items in the different sections include association, completion items arranged in various sequences of personages, dates, reasons, descriptions, concepts, and locations. There are two forms of the test, a manual of directions, keys, and record sheets. Tentative standards and norms are provided.

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## Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLET BREBNER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

*Franklin, The Apostle of Modern Times.* By Bernard Fay. Little, Brown and Co., Boston, 1929. xvi, 547 pp. \$3.00.

Frenchmen, I suppose, will always be attracted to those two Americans, Franklin and Jefferson, whose lives were so intimately bound up with the fortunes of America and France. It was natural for Professor Fay to turn to a more elaborate study of Franklin after tracing his influence in the development of the French revolutionary spirit. He has unearthed hundreds of unpublished documents bearing on his subject, which were unknown to earlier biographers, and by a judicious use of his materials has shown the tremendous significance of Franklin in the world of the eighteenth century.

"The Rearing of an Eighteenth-Century Radical," which is book one, is a fine contribution to the study of the origin of Franklin's ideas, and is perhaps the most important portion of the volume. These ideas, developed so early in life, influenced from diverse sources, including that Boston Puritan background, against which Franklin is so often pictured in revolt, were part of his mental equipment throughout the rest of his life. In the second part of his life, as Fay sees it, Franklin was on the "Way to Wealth," laying the foundations for his bourgeois respectability. Once secured, he could now devote his attentions to building an Anglo-American empire, an ambition that stirred his imagination for many years, until the force of circumstances forced him to confine his plans to an empire on American soil. "Doctor Franklin, the Patriarch," after officiating at the birth of the American republic, went to France to get nourishment for the lusty infant, and there became an oracle whose wise words were eagerly sought by minds troubled by the existence of outworn conventions.

A work which is the result of years of diligent effort deserves discriminating criticism. The thesis that Franklin "was the first bourgeois in the world" is hardly tenable, for how shall we dispose of the middle class in seventeenth-century England, to mention no others? Fay is on safer ground when he says that Franklin "defined the principles of the bourgeois...and made his life a pattern to follow." Franklin's life fixed one of the cardinal principles in the American creed; that a man self-made, without family name, was a possibility in a world that still revered traditional inheritances. But this aspect of Franklin's career, so fascinating to European readers, whose magazines took special pains to mention it, is not sufficiently stressed by Fay. Nor is the utilitarian application of many of Franklin's scientific ideas, so interesting a feature of bourgeois thought, strongly noted.

American society, although similar to Europe's in many ways, was at the same time very different, so that one must be very cautious in applying to America labels, like "bourgeoisic," "Liberal and Conservative" parties, which more easily fit European conditions. Is it possible that Fay reads too much into Franklin's intercolonial printing activities in the years that followed 1730? Wasn't it merely good business and no desire to "develop the national sentiment of America" (200-201)? There are several slips in proof-reading, and I suspect that various infelicities in phrasing were not in the original French of the manuscript. Students of the eighteenth century will find new things to learn and old ideas to unlearn, but one man's Franklin may not be everyman's. However, to judge by sales already recorded, which the book richly deserves, this is nearly everyman's Franklin.

MICHAEL KRAUS.

College of the City of New York.

*The New German Republic.* By Elmer Luehr. Minton, Balch and Co., New York, 1929. 442 pp.

"The dull dawn of a bleak autumn day, darkened by the deep Compiègne forest, broke sullenly from a gray

sky as the German Armistice Delegation ended its wayfaring. The delegates blinked in wonder. They had journeyed the fantastic path of an Aladdin....For over four years no German had freely passed through the Allied lines. And now they were at rest in the depths of an unknown French forest." Thus attractively does Mr. Luehr place the reader in the midst of the epochal events of November, 1918, and after, occurrences which assured the debacle of imperial Germany as a military power, but which set free forces, long dormant, which were eventually to destroy the Hohenzollern dynasty, democratize the state, and aid in the long process of post-war recovery.

From an able analysis of the Spartacist Revolution of 1918-1919, Mr. Luehr proceeds to the achievements of the Weimar Constituent Assembly which framed the present constitution. In so doing he presents a brief contrast of the latter document with that of imperial Germany, showing that although the Bismarckian organization was outwardly a federation of states, it was in reality a league of ruling dynasties, a "treaty between sovereign states," which still flaunted their ambitions and pet particularisms; at their head the Emperor regarded himself as a monarch by divine right; whereas, legally, he was merely the president of a confederation. And yet the years 1871-1914 saw an enormous change in the attitude of the German people toward their state; by the latter date, as Mr. Luehr says, a German nation did exist; whereas, it was potential only, earlier. To a large extent, the peaceful organization of the republic of 1919, by its strengthening of the national tie and its weakening of local autonomy, registered what was largely a fait accompli.

The Great War hastened and nearly perfected this strong nationalization process, for it was truly a national struggle, not one engaged in by a reluctant mass of "gentle Germans," driven along by the ruthless whip of "brutal Prussians." And the abdication of all royalty, following the desertion of the head of the state, indicates still further that it was a national revolution which had occurred, and not merely an abdication of the ruler.

With the general thesis of Mr. Luehr's chapter on the Treaty of Versailles—that it was a victor's peace and hence unjust, that it ignored facts and violated the Fourteen Points of President Wilson—few informed persons would at this late day deny. However, to imply that the American refusal to ratify the Versailles document was in any large way due to its unfairness to Germany is to ignore many other factors in the Senate feud which had nothing to do with Germany (page 155). Likewise, there is present in this chapter a somewhat angry air, a presentation of the injustices of Versailles, as if there had never been punic peaces before, and a slight tendency to present the German case quite separated from its necessary background of 1871.

The remaining chapters of the book are concerned with reparations, the invasion of the Ruhr, the attempts in the Dawes and Young Plans to solve the financial and reparations problems of the nation, and with other difficult economic and social problems of the years since 1919. These betray a fairly thorough knowledge of the literature of recent years upon post-war history and evidence an up-to-date point of view, frequently an attitude which might be termed "continental," rather than narrowly apologetic or exculpatory. And if it might be urged that little in the latter half of the volume is new or relatively unknown to most students of the period, yet the book is worth while and should be as interesting to the student of current history and international relations as it was to the reviewer. Germany's success in quelling revolutions, both of the Right and the Left, the orderly progress made toward real constitutional government, the increasing efforts of the Reich towards co-operation with other European states (evident in the Treaty of Locarno, in sincere if belated acceptance of scientific plans for financial rehabilitation, and in her entry into the League), and finally

her stupendous progress toward regaining her former industrial and commercial position, form ample justification for Mr. Luehr's label, "The Republic Triumphant," which he attaches to his final chapter. An eight-page bibliography and a jacket in the red, black, and gold of the Republic, together with good print and attractive binding, round out a volume of much interest.

COURTNEY R. HALL.

New York University.

*Rivalry of the United States and Great Britain over Latin-America (1808-1830).* By J. Fred Rippy. The Johns Hopkins Press, 1929. xi, 322 pp. Maps. \$2.75.

*The Isthmian Highway. A Review of the Problems of the Caribbean.* By H. G. Miller. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1929. xvii, 327 pp. Illus.

The scope of Dr. Rippy's Albert Shaw Lectures on Diplomatic History for 1928 can best be indicated here by recording the table of contents. The eight chapters bear the following titles: I. "Political and Economic Issues (1808-1823)," II. "The Destiny of the Spanish Borderlands," III. "Texas and Cuba," IV. "The Antagonism of Canning and Adams—Rivalry in Southern South America," V. "Rivalry in Northern South America," VI. "Friction in Central America—The Panama Congress," VII. "Spirited Contests in Mexico," VIII. "Conclusion—A Century of Subsequent Contests."

While it is clearly evident that the volume deals with an historical period which has been widely exploited, the author has introduced a new and wider angle of approach and has synthesized many pertinent facts obtained from a study of the sources in the British Public Record Office and the United States Department of State. Since extensive use has been made of diplomatic correspondence, the work is in a measure a study in national and international psychology as applied to Hispanic-American affairs. The period covered in the first seven chapters is one of political

and economic rivalry between two nations, each of which was jealous of its attempts to influence politically the rising Hispanic-American states and to obtain a full share of their trade. The book points out in detail these rivalries, and sets a pattern for the similar treatment of subsequent periods of British-American friction in the Western Hemisphere.

One phase of these relations scarcely touched upon by Dr. Rippy, because it appears chiefly in a subsequent period, is treated in the second volume under review. The author of the *Isthmian Highway* holds the thesis that the maritime policy of the United States has centered about the Isthmus of Panama, and that it has been justified in its seizure of canal territory and in its construction of an interoceanic highway on the ground that it is best for humanity. The book is written by an interventionist, an ardent proponent of the Monroe Doctrine, and a lawyer, and it is both judicial and argumentative in tone.

The story of the Panama Canal is an interesting one, as the writer shows. Such topics as early canal projects, canal zone sanitation, canal construction and financing, canal income, and the canal in American diplomacy are treated at length. To many readers, perhaps, the relation of the Monroe Doctrine to canal diplomacy may seem overdone, and the point that the United States, by seizing territory and building a waterway, acted as a philanthropic benefactor of mankind may appear too greatly stressed. But the work as a whole, though optimistic to the point of historical inaccuracy, constitutes an interesting synthesis of the many ramifications of the perplexing canal problems. There are a number of typographical errors in the volume, and the rambling last chapter, entitled, "Parity on the Ocean," might well have been omitted. Six appendices contain the texts of important international agreements. The index is serviceable.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.



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*How the Old World Found the New.* By Eunice Fuller Barnard and Lida Lee Tall. Edited by J. Montgomery Gambrill. Ginn & Co., New York, 1929. 251 pp.

A charming and daring new history reader, *How the Old World Found the New*, has come to my desk. The book is charming, because it has a dramatic narrative style. The content topics are intriguing. Who would not want to read about "An Italian boy who travels in the wonderful East," or "Unlocking Spain's Treasure-Houses or the Land of the Humpbacked Cows?"

The authors dared to leave out many of the bone-dry facts of history. They clothed them in lively costumes fitted for the period and the tastes of the people. Delightful bits of detail were gathered from sources and made to serve their purpose of sketching a vivid picture. The Spanish king ordered five ships to be given Magellan to make the voyage to the "Spicer." Cortes wrote the king about Mexico, "It is a more beautiful city from without than any in Spain, for it is many-towered and lies in a plain," or in the midst of the lakes rose the city itself, "we were astonished and said....it appeared like the enchanted castles—"

The pictures are drawings of old prints or maps, but clearly reproduced. They are truly teaching aids. A summary with important dates gives opportunity for a helpful survey of the topics. The list of references is scholarly and suggestive, although many of the books would not be available in an ordinary library.

The dream stated in the introduction of having such a vivid account replace the usual insipid text is worth considering. Certainly pupils would get inspiration and lasting pictures of historical changes from such an account. But suggestive reviews and activities would help the average teacher much, in stressing the significant points in the account.

This book is unique and startling in its plan. History becomes a vivid living experience, or dramatic event, with real thrill. Emotions as well as facts are put back into the elementary school history. Life in the past ages becomes a living reality, with human men and women moving across its pages.

Perhaps the later volumes will stress more of the contributions of these Europeans to the New World as well as the reproduction of what the New World appeared to be when they first glimpsed it. We see Mexico City or Peru in all its Indian grandeur, but are left only with the picture of destruction and woe that the Spaniard left in such culture. Surely the French village, with its contribution in vegetables, flowers, and orchards to the Indian world, and the Spanish hacienda, are quite as worthy of mention as the wealth gleaned from New Spain for the Old World or the furs from New France. The picture would be complete if what the Old World gave the New, were added.

OLIVE BUCKS.

School of Education, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

*Europe Since 1914.* By F. Lee Benns. F. S. Crofts & Co., New York, 1930. 671 pp.

All written history is forced to a choice of two evils, arising from the necessity of presenting consecutively events that take place simultaneously. The choice is that between treating events chronologically to cover the given period and treating a single topic within the period, from beginning to end. Now, in any history of the post-war era, which is from our close vision so full of important factors and incidents, the problem of giving a reasonably clear picture is magnified by multiplicity as much as by interrelation. That Mr. Benns has unquestionably achieved clarity in his seven-hundred attractively printed pages ought to make us lenient on the point of logic and system.

The author has, in effect, combined the alternative methods we have sketched above, using the chronological sequence where it seemed appropriate, as, for instance, in his lucid account of the World War; and the topical division where, as in the case of post-war reconstruction, it made for a more sustained narrative. It may, perhaps, be

objected that the account of the Russian Revolution in the middle of the first part is too full to be anything else than a digression; that it belongs properly as a retrospect at the beginning of Chapter XVII, *The Soviet Régime in Russia*. A moment's reflection, however, suggests that the Russian Revolution is an integral part of the story of the war, which is affected to a greater extent than is currently admitted. Again, if the disintegration of the Austro-Hungarian Empire and the establishment of the German Republic are directly linked up with the conflict that began in 1914, the overthrow of the Tsarist régime, however long and laborious, is no less relevant to it.

Mr. Benns, throughout his volume, has made use of the latest authoritative literature, a satisfactory and briefly critical list of which is to be found in the Bibliography. The treatment of the origins of the World War is ample testimony of the Indiana Professor's impartiality. Though clearly not an apostle of war as a purifying force in modern life, the author does not fallaciously advance militarism or any other factor as the single cause of the World struggle. Likewise, though it is easy to perceive that Mr. Benns is not sympathetic to the Socialist Revolutionaries, he concedes a goodly number of their leaders to have ability, and he gives an extremely fair account of their program and achievements. On less controversial matter, such as *Reconstruction in France* or the *British Struggle With Unemployment*, Mr. Benns' history is admirably dispassionate, concise, and well-informed. This is not to say that the author emits no opinions, makes no judgments. Even the least inspired of writers is incapable of writing without saying something; and as soon as something is said, a judgment has been made or inferred. Mr. Benns' are sound, and, above all, documented, which enables the student to reflect. It may remain a mere unemployed opportunity, but at least the gate has been enticingly opened.

Not one of the least merits of this volume is the complete brevity, or rather, brief completeness of many of its chapters. Sixteen pages cover the German Revolution; fourteen, the settlement of the Irish Question; at the most, thirty-five pages are devoted to the Fascist Régime in Italy. From the viewpoint of the teacher who wishes to assign the outside readings in convenient sections, the forethought of the author, and his conquest of the bulk to be presented are a source of gratification. From the viewpoint of the student-reader, these advantages will not be protested.

What the last-mentioned category might and may object to, however, is an occasional obscurity, as in the abbreviated statements of the Dawes' Plan and the Fascist Electoral System. This fault arises from the complexity of the subjects, and a revision would surely raise them to the level of perspicuity that prevails in the remainder of the volume. That revision might also eliminate certain redundancies and infelicities of phrase such as are bound to creep into any extended work for general use.

These few blemishes, perhaps the more apparent by reason of the excellence of the whole, should not bind the judicious reader to the outstanding merits of this clear, compact, and correct summary of the chief events and forces of the period from 1914 to the present.

JACQUES M. BARZUN.

Columbia University.

*Canada and the United States.* By Hugh L. Keenleyside. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1929. xx, 425 pp.

The comparative neglect of Canadian-American relations heretofore has been remarkable, in view of the intimacy of the two countries and the vital position of Canada in Anglo-American concerns—more than twenty-five years ago the British Ambassador at Washington found that three-quarters of his time was absorbed by Canadian business. Most discussions of American foreign policy have devoted considerable incidental attention to this phase of it, and British diplomacy touching the Dominion, treated from the traditional viewpoint, has always had an important place even in Canadian elementary school history texts. There have been, too, of recent years several careful monographs from what might be termed the revisionist angle, including excellent articles in the *Canada and its Provinces* series.

Thus far, however, the subject as a whole has lacked systematic treatment.

Now that Canada has assumed responsibility for the conduct of her own external affairs, the need for a volume of this description has become imperative. Appropriately enough, the author is now a member of the adolescent Canadian diplomatic service. As a Canadian whose graduate studies were carried on in this country, and as a former history professor (like most of his present colleagues), he is well qualified to write upon his theme. The result is a balanced survey of the political and diplomatic relations of Canada and the United States throughout their history. The topical arrangement comprises the friction during the Revolutionary War, Loyalist influence in Canada, the War of 1812, the crises during the middle period, major and minor boundary disputes, the fisheries controversy, commercial negotiations, migration, and a final chapter on War and post-War relationships. Professor Kennedy, of Toronto University, has contributed a brief introduction; there are ten useful maps and charts; the work is interestingly written and well documented throughout. The range of memoirs and contemporary newspaper sources as well as official documents, and the secondary literature appears to have been well probed.

Considerable attention is devoted to the annexationist efforts of the United States during the earlier period. Frequently these met a sympathetic response from certain elements in Canada, but they were vigorously resisted by the government and the bulk of the population. In this connection the author notes the numerical strength of the inhabitants of American extraction in Upper Canada during the War of 1812 (25,000 as against 35,000 of Loyalist and British antecedents), but ignores the presence of the same factor during the earlier revolutionary invasion. Actually every member of the Committee of Correspondence in the Montreal district was a recent arrival from New England. Due weight is given Professor Pratt's contentions regarding the true cause of the War of 1812. An equally

potent, if imponderable, factor in the Canadian national heritage is the Loyalist tradition, which is here discussed without either uncritical adulation or flippancy, and which it is well to have elucidated for American readers.

Among the most useful chapters in the book are those dealing with the boundary disputes and the fisheries questions. Although amicably settled, these, of all Canadian-American relations, have left the chief legacy of argument. The author discusses each episode in turn, setting forth in concise fashion the antecedents and points at issue, the contentions on both sides, and the mature opinions of careful students thereon. The remainder of the book, it is worth noting, covers an era of co-operation rather than friction. The two chapters on economic relations open up a field which has become of vital importance since the War and in which the most serious issues between the two countries in the future will undoubtedly lie. They contain much interesting and serviceable data regarding trade, capital investment, and the numbers and character of the population exchanged. The volume concludes with a constructive analysis of recent interrelations.

The subject of this volume has an especial interest from the anomalous, in many respects unique, character of the relationships involved. It has often been remarked that here are two countries, the one mature and great, the other young and weak, dividing between them most of a continent, separated by a purely artificial frontier of tremendous length, but wholly undefended, which, nevertheless, have lived in peace and friendship for more than a century. The basic factor, probably, is the colonial status of Canada throughout almost the whole period. Not only, in consequence, have her official contacts with her nearest neighbor and closest business associate been mediate and negotiations vexatiously indirect. It has conditioned the Canadian attitude to both Britain and the United States. Canadian-American relations have always been but an aspect of the wider issue of the Anglo-American entente, for the mother country who accepts responsibility for her colony de-

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mands, if not correlative, at least the ultimate authority. This has provoked much irritation in Canada, and a habitual viewpoint hardly as conducive as might be to cordiality all round. But now that responsibility for external relations has been laid squarely on the Canadian government, matters rest on a much more satisfactory basis.

Such a study as Dr. Keenleyside's also does much to clear the air and promote mutual understanding between the two countries. On the one hand his dispassionate appraisal of the several boundary disputes will help dispel the unfortunate tradition in Canada that her interests have uniformly been sacrificed by the mother country to—as a leading Canadian nationalist puts it—"the fetish of Anglo-Saxon friendship." So much emphasis has been laid by Canadian historians upon their constitutional controversies with Britain that it is time the balance was restored and adequate attention given to a set of relationships which have been almost as important in their country's history. On the other hand, the author draws attention to several matters which Americans seemingly have not realized or are prone to forget. For instance, as he several times notes, Canadians are also British, and disparagement of the mother country in the United States has proved anything but conducive to weaning them from their early affection. In his final chapter, too, there is an excellent analysis of the Canadian reaction to the American attitude during the early stages of the European War, which explains a great deal. The author has achieved this difficult and very necessary task of mutual enlightenment with admirable tact and ability.

A. GORDON DEWEY.

Amherst College.

*The Age of Grey and Peel.* By H. W. C. Davis. Oxford University Press, New York, 1929. ix, 347 pp. \$5.00.

To any one familiar with the late Professor Davis' other historical writings, this volume cannot but seem a little unfamiliar. For one thing, it was his first venture into recent history, following the recommendations of his inaugural lecture as Regius Professor at Oxford, and, for another, one has the impression that the book is in the second of what would have been three stages, had Davis lived longer. Originally the Ford lectures of 1926, the editor, Professor G. M. Trevelyan, found them almost in the revised form in which they are published, little enough like lectures, but, it would appear, not quite in the easy and graceful literary form which one would expect. They are a little too full and detailed, occasionally almost repetitive. One can imagine that another month or two, or the interval between terms, would have given us a less apparently "solid" series of studies and more of the historian's art.

When one disregards or surmounts these relatively unimportant limitations, the book is found to contain precisely the sort of studies which are necessary to make English political and constitutional history credible in their transition from the eighteenth to the nineteenth centuries. The career of Peel is seen to be the coping-stone of eighteenth-century processes which were overlaid and thwarted and modified by the exciting developments between 1789 and 1815. It is highly satisfactory that Professor Davis saw the problem as he did, for as a result he has given us reasonable interpretation of a period too often dismissed under generalizations such as "reaction," "romanticism," "bourgeois control," and so on. The Whig and Tory parties are revealed to have been evolving groups, affected slowly but integrally by the burgeoning industrial revolution, as well as by the democratic movements of the day. Probably another, more Marxian, historian would have made more of the change of definition of "property" among the "men of property," who were the ruling oligarchy in Great Britain, but the reader who is acquainted with industrial history can supplement the account for himself. The English reader will no doubt enjoy the volume more than the American, but the latter now has in systematic arrangement the materials of politics, which he has hitherto had to extract from biographies or the rare monograph, such as G. M. Trevelyan's *Lord Grey of the Reform Bill*.

Gradually the assured revelation of how agitation, popular education, industrial development, humanitarianism, urban concentration, economic leadership, foreign agricultural competition, the new kind of carrying trade, and something very like world supremacy became involved in a superficially conservative political machinery will enter into general knowledge, and the Reform Bill, the repeal of the Corn Laws, and the coming of free trade and free imperial intercourse will seem less miraculous than they did in the past. For much of this we shall have to be grateful to the last work of the late Professor Davis.—B.

*Spain and Spanish-America in the Libraries of the University of California. A Catalog of Books. Volume I, The General and Departmental Libraries.* Compiled by Alice I. Lyser. Berkeley, California, 1929. vi, 846 pp.

*Cochrane the Unconquerable.* By A. D. Turnbull and N. R. van der Veer. The Century Company, New York, 1929. iv, 319 pp.

The first volume under review is a comprehensive and excellent bibliography, containing some 15,000 different titles of books, pamphlets, and periodical reprints. It is to be followed by a second work, which will list the references on the same subjects found in the Bancroft Library of the University of California. The catalog here cited is divided into two parts, the first listing all works alphabetically by authors, and the second, a subject index, classifying authors by the subjects which they treat. In each case full titles of references are given, and in some instances further descriptions are added. However, this is in no sense a critical bibliography, nor does it contain citations of a large number of important works printed in English and Spanish. Its chief value lies in the fact that it constitutes an admirable working bibliography of Hispanic-American history.

The volume dealing with Lord Cochrane is a cross between an historical novel and an historical biography. It is history written in a fascinating novelistic fashion, but though the background picture is excellent and the essential facts are quite accurately given, the book must be judged as literature rather than as history.

The hero of the story, the Tenth Earl of Dundonald, was born in Scotland on December 14, 1775. His father was early impoverished through schemes of invention and speculation, and young Thomas went to sea in 1793 at the age of 18 to seek education and adventure. In 1801 he captured a Spanish vessel and thereafter his promotion in the navy was rapid. In 1806, while stationed in the West Indies, he rendered assistance to Francisco de Miranda in his attempt to revolutionize Venezuela, and in the same year he was elected to the House of Commons as a Radical. Three years later he brilliantly acquitted himself in a sea fight with the French, but because he accused his superior officer of incompetence he won the disfavor of the Admiralty and was suspended from naval service until 1813. During this interim he speculated on the Stock Exchange, and, though innocent, was accused of misdealing, tried in 1814, condemned, and expelled from Parliament and the navy. Soon after, he went to Chile, where from 1818 to 1822 he served daringly and brilliantly, and was largely responsible for the success of the Patriot cause. From 1823 to 1825 he aided the Brazilians in obtaining their independence from Portugal. During 1827 and 1828 he was in command of the Greek navy fighting for the freedom of Greece. In the latter year he returned to England and four years later re-entered the British navy. Besides being a born fighter and commander of men, Cochrane was an inventor, a scientist, and a writer. He died in London on October 30, 1860, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

The action of this volume begins in 1801 and ends about 1828. But these were the years when Cochrane was associated with the movements for Hispanic-American independence, and were the best and most active years of his life.

A. CURTIS WILGUS,  
University of South Carolina.

*Austrian War Government.* By Joseph Redlich. New Haven, Yale University Press, 1929. 175 pp.

That the World War hastened the dissolution of the Austrian Empire is, of course, a matter of common knowledge. The actual process by which the Imperial Government was dissolved, and a number of "succession" governments substituted for it, however, has remained largely a matter of vague notions to American, if not to European, readers. But "this last chapter in the history of one of the two great German Powers that issued from the Holy Roman Empire" has now been written by Professor Redlich, than who no one could have been better qualified for the task. Remarkable for its clarity, its completeness, and its scholarliness, *Austrian War Government* remains one of the most interesting and valuable volumes in the Carnegie series on the Economic and Social History of the War.

The volume begins with a brief summary and description of Austrian administration before the War—from about 1850 to 1914. Then come half a dozen chapters dealing in detail with the structure, spirit, and functioning of the war government—the government that was expected to lead Austria through crisis to victory. In these chapters there are described and discussed the emergency legislation passed by Austria's last peace government, the spirit of the war government, war-time administration, war-time economics, and state socialism during the War. Professor Redlich distinguishes between two main phases in the war government: the period of dictatorship, from the outbreak of hostilities to the death of Francis Joseph on November 21, 1916; and the period from November, 1916, to Emperor Charles' Manifesto of October 16, 1918, during which a definite attempt was made to restore parliamentary institutions. This latter effort to "heal the fearful wounds dealt during the Dictatorship" forms the subject of a further chapter in the book.

The final chapter describes the actual downfall of the empire, the rise of the new national states, and the remarkable part played by the old Austrian Civil Service in help-

ing the new states carry on under difficult circumstances with a minimum of difficulty. "The transition from the now finished past," writes Professor Redlich, "to the new nationalist present was, externally, hardly perceptible. The official stamps were altered; the usual portrait of the head of the State on the office wall was removed; but the officials remained the same, and the countless laws and decrees through which they functioned remained in force with practically no alterations."

It is Professor Redlich's concluding contention that the October Manifesto, by transforming Austria into a "complex of national states," without, however, indicating how these states were to be held together in a federal unity, provided the legal basis for the dissolution of Austria, thus rendering internal conflicts, rebellions, and civil wars totally unnecessary. After this, having first released the civil service from its oath of allegiance to the monarch, it remained only for Charles to abdicate. He did so, on November 11, 1918.

The great value of the Carnegie enterprise has been made even greater because Professor Redlich's volume appears in the series.

WALTER C. LANGSAM.

Columbia University.

*History of the People of England.* By Alice Drayton Greenwood. Volume IV. 1834-1910. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1929. vii, 194 pp. \$2.00.

This is the fourth volume of a series evidently prepared for use in advanced high school or college courses. Well organized for the guidance of the student, it has the inherent defects of any attempt at orderly arrangement of the complicated and irregular developments making up the life of a people. The reader is given definite and for the most part accurate information concerning important events and movements during the period, but the interrelation of these events and movements is not brought out. Since, however, the descriptions of the various episodes and series

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of events are adequate and clear, the skilful teacher will be able to lead the student to discover these relationships for himself, and thus to reconstruct some parts, at least, of the life of the period.

The apportionment of space among political, economic, intellectual, and social aspects of life is good, though the treatment of social reforms of the last twenty years before 1910 (a date, by the way, which it seems hard to justify as the end of a period) is hardly more than a listing of acts of Parliament; and the author evidently thinks that the people of England were not affected during the latter half of the nineteenth century by the growth of Socialism or the rise of the Labor party. Neither movement is mentioned. Decidedly outstanding is Miss Greenwood's treatment of the Church, which is given space and emphasis due it as an important factor in English life of the period. In the chapter devoted to this subject she gives an enlightening and suggestive résumé of developments in the Church and in religious thought such as is rarely met with in general histories. The sections on law and local government as affected by the growth of democracy are also excellent. One expects such descriptions to be tedious summaries of classes of courts and officers, but here, due to the author's discrimination in the choice of detail, is a picture of the present-day court system of England and the administration of local government which is at once clear and interesting.

While the material is compact and set forth with business-like rapidity, after the approved textbook pattern, this volume seems entirely free from a certain air of completeness which is the great evil of such books. Students who have made careful study of its contents will not be left with a complacent belief that they have mastered any of the topics discussed. Rather will they feel that they have only been introduced to these topics, and that further reading is both desirable and necessary. In this connection the frequent references in footnotes to contemporary literature which deals with conditions or characters of the period will be helpful to both student and teacher. Some maps, well-chosen illustrations, a genealogy of the reigning family, and a satisfactory index all contribute to the usefulness of the book.

It is unfortunate that such a workmanlike volume should be marred by many inept expressions and misleading statements. The continued use of the abbreviation U. S. A. is something less than pleasing; and the use of italics for emphasis savors of a style suitable for juvenile readers and is not in keeping with the general tone of the book. The following—apropos of the founding of a penal colony in Australia—seems to call for some explanation: "The convicts who had for two centuries been transported to North America as slaves for the colonists could now be sent thither no longer" (p. 150). Occasionally, too, one sees in the hand of the author a flag, moving to and fro, now gently, again more vigorously. Such blemishes as these need not be regarded as defects, but they detract from the dignity and pleasing impression of a carefully prepared and valuable text.

EDITH DOBIE.

University of Washington.

*Studies in the History of American Law.* By Richard B. Morris. Columbia University Press, New York, 1930. 273 pp.

Someone has said that though the Pilgrims landed on Plymouth Rock, Plymouth Rock might with equal truth be said to have landed on the Pilgrims. Certain it is that the institutions they brought with them were profoundly influenced by the conditions of the land to which they were brought. The common law was no exception to this. Toughly woven though the law is of precedents and ancient threads, it none the less did stretch in the new American atmosphere.

As one would readily expect, the basic common law institutions were not greatly modified, but in every branch of the law substantial changes were effected. In the law of estates primogeniture gave way to complete equality of inheritance among the heirs of intestate. In torn liability

the American courts permitted recovery for death resulting from a wrongful but unintentional act, despite the maxim that a personal action dies with the person. The greatest progress, however, was made in the status of women. Not only did the colonial law take active interest in the full performance of the marriage contract, but it took important steps in the direction of a separate legal existence for a wife with power to own property, enforce ante-nuptial contracts, and even to make contracts with her husband during coverture.

Dr. Morris' volume is interestingly written, carefully documented, and contains a useful bibliographical essay.

J. McGOLDRICK.

Columbia University.

## Book Notes

Professor Ernest Scott, of the University of Melbourne, has compiled two volumes of great interest and entertainment in *Australian Discovery, I. By Sea, II. By Land* (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1929. xxxvi, 419; xxxii, 422 pp. Each \$4.00). Each volume consists of abridged logs, reports, and other accounts of the original explorers with almost no editorial footnotes, but with a general introduction to each volume and very brief introductory notes of identification to each extract. The first volume contains fifteen, and the second sixteen, contemporary portraits and maps. Aside from the smallness of type necessary in order to get so much material within four covers and niggardliness about a good general map for volume two, both editor and publishers are to be congratulated in their work. The straightforward introduction to the first volume recounts the suppositions, the obstacles, and the circumstances which made Australasia the longest unknown continent, if we except those at the poles. The editor recalls the work of Spaniard and Portuguese, and rightly emphasizes the systematic endeavors of the Dutch, whose profit was lost to them and gained to England when their own resources dwindled beside those of imperial Britain. The materials in this volume relate to Dr. Juan Arias (late sixteenth century), Torres and Quiros (1605), Brouwer (1611), and Hartog (1616), Pelsart (1629), Tasman (1642-3), Van Diemen (1642-4), Dampier (1688-99), Cook (1769-70), Bligh (of the *Bounty* mutiny, 1787-9), Lapérouse (1785-88), Bass (1798), and Flinders (1801-03). Not all the materials are as exciting as Bligh's account of his journey in an open boat from Tahiti to Timor, but all have distinct interest and are suitably abridged. The introduction to the second volume begins with a description of the difficult mountain country, thirty miles back of Sydney, which was so serious an obstacle to early inland exploration until the cattleman Bloxland found a way through in 1813. Thereafter the continent was attacked from various parts of its shore, and the river and desert puzzle gradually unravelled by men like Allan Cunningham, or by sheepmen, or by single-minded explorers like Sturt and Stuart. It is unfortunate that the introduction does not make clear the achievement of the Prussian scientist, Leichhardt, and that no record of his journeys is available. Otherwise, the materials are a valuable collection of scattered accounts, many almost impossible otherwise to obtain. They refer to the efforts of Blaxland (1813), Evans (1813-18), Oxley (1817-18), Cunningham (1823-27), Hume and Hovell (1824), Lockyer (1825), Sturt (1828-30), Mitchell (1836)—all of which concerned the southeastern portion of the continent—and Sturt (1844-46), Eyre (1841), Burke and Wills (1860-61), and Stuart (1860-62)—all concerned with investigating the southern and central parts of Australia or the possibilities of a south-north traverse. For various reasons the narratives of the second volume are on the whole much more engaging than those of the first, and for anyone interested in the drama of exploration of a strangely disposed country they prove to be a fascinating history. Professor Scott has performed a notable service to students of history and his heroes can win for themselves the wider audience.

"This is a romantic book." These are the opening words of Rom Landau's *Pilsudski and Poland* (Lincoln MacVeagh, The Dial Press, New York, 1929. 305 pp.). A little further on Mr. Landau intimates that he strove, definitely and admittedly, to "set forth a world and a destiny that cannot be reconstructed from facts and documents alone." Keeping in mind, then, that the author makes no pretense at having produced a definitive, historically-unimpeachable biography, the volume takes rank as one of the most delightful of recent psychoanalytical, hero-worshiping, undocumented pen portraits. The book gives a splendid picture, by a romantic Pole, of the mystical and romantic stuff of which the New Poland is made. Pilsudski was and is an enigmatic figure, apparently even to most of his compatriots. Mr. Landau gives one interpretation of the man and his actions. Whether this interpretation is the correct one or not matters little, since the author candidly tells his position. He has given his version of the story of a destiny, a destiny embodied to a large extent in a man called Joseph Pilsudski. The result is a fascinating romance.

*Readings in Recent American Constitutional History, 1876-1926.* Edited by Allen Johnson and William A. Robinson. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1929. 509 pp. The first two-thirds of this interesting compilation is largely a casebook in American constitutional law, its novelty being confined to a rather good discussion of federal subsidies to the states and three chapters devoted to the presidency. The remainder of the volume departs quite boldly from the conventional treatment and includes excellent discussions of the injunction, budgetary reforms, state

administrative reorganization, and good brief discussion of municipal corporations. Though the whole volume is made up mostly of abridgments of court decisions, there is some good secondary material. Like most editors of books of readings, the present compilers have limited their work pretty much to selection rather than editing. The proposed child labor amendment, for example, is printed without so much as a note to indicate that it failed of ratification.—J. McGOLDRICK.

*Franco-German Relations, 1878-1885* (Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1929. 200 pp.), by Professor Robert W. Wienefeld, of Converse College, is a well-written, fully-documented study of the relations of the two Great Powers in question during a period when, in contrast to previous years, these relations were cordial rather than other. The specific conclusions arrived at by Professor Wienefeld are: that good relations became possible with the accession of a conservative republican government in France; that Germany manifested its friendly feeling towards France at the Congress of Berlin; that Germany very definitely encouraged France to adopt a vigorous colonial policy after 1880; that the two countries were friendliest during the second Ferry Ministry, from February, 1883, to March, 1885; that the good understanding was made even better by the respective grievances of France and Germany against Great Britain regarding affairs in Egypt and in West Africa; and that the fall of Ferry in March, 1885, together with the revival of Anglo-German friendship with the rise to power of the Conservative Salisbury Ministry in England in June, 1885, once again put an end to the very transient Franco-German entente. It is a rare pleas-

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For the Bulletin of Information for the Summer Session of 1930, address

The Secretary of Columbia University, New York City

ure, indeed, nowadays, to find a study that really leads to such concrete conclusions as does that of Professor Wienefeld.

*A Brief Account of Diplomatic Events in Manchuria* (Oxford University Press, London, 1929, 93 pp.), by Sir Harold Parlett, was prepared especially for the bi-annual Conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations held at Kyoto in the fall of 1929. The monograph itself occupies 51 pages, the remainder of the volume being taken up with extracts from various international agreements relating to Manchuria. After a brief description of the physical features, and the population of the province, Sir Harold discusses the diplomatic history of Manchuria under four heads or in four chronological periods: the early period, down to the close of the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895; the period of Russian aggression, ending with the Treaty of Portsmouth in 1905; the period of Japanese aggression, checked by the Washington Conference of 1921-1922; and the period from 1922 to date, the outstanding feature of which is the attempt of China to reassert her authority. A short bibliography and an excellent map of the Manchurian Railways add considerably to the value of this clear, accurate, and straightforward account. The volume is quite timely, in view of the Russo-Chinese complications that ensued between these two powers in the autumn of 1929 over the question of the Chinese Far Eastern Railway in Manchuria.

It is not difficult to understand why history-writing should attract novelists, and perhaps no more difficult to see why the new discipline should prove to be either a considerable obstacle to their art or too arbitrary to be carried out with professional aptitude. In the case of Mr. R. H. Mottram, best known for his remarkable *Spanish Farm* trilogy of war novels, his *History of Financial Speculation* (Little, Brown Co., Boston, 1929, xii, 317 pp. \$4.00) is too good history to be fiction, and yet in its very personal selection of *data* is only good history in that it is used to buttress the conclusions as to credit and financial machinery reached by the author in twenty-seven years of banking experience. That means in general that the student of history will not turn to it for a systematized and comprehensive bit of history, but for revelation of the evolution of credit machinery as seen by a banker-novelist and eclectic student of history and economics. He has not written a flippant, popular treatise; in fact, his opening chapter in point of allure is surprisingly badly arranged and ineffective. Mr. Mottram is serious and sincere, and it is worth following him in a mode unfamiliar to him in order to get suggestions for interpretation of economic history which belongs more to him than to his printed authorities. He often makes disturbing short-cuts, but he is as often provocative and fresh in his approach, as in treating of contemporary collectivistic doctrines as something like inevitable devourers of the stabilization and tolerance which speculation and monopoly have won in our day—"Already in Russia and Italy personal freedom is a thing of the past. With it has perished speculation." Yet, on the whole, as one is led by interest to read through the book, it is hard to escape wonderment that a man capable of the integrated artistry of *The Spanish Farm* should write history in the ill-co-ordinated manner of the first half of this book. It looks as if Cleo were a hard task-mistress, with a discipline all her own, which has set up habits of thought for historical discourse not easily amenable to the methods of even a great novelist. On the other hand, the banker-novelist enjoys the advantages of a sense of humor and of being uninhibited by arbitrary canons of economics. He perpetually throws off illuminating *dicta*, such as his observation "that during the century that English finance led the world, it was dominated by a rule [The Act of 1844] so excellent that it had to be broken every time that it was seriously involved." His book promises to be a mildly rewarding diversion for students rather than a successful vulgarization.

Although the extant series of texts on the history of Europe or of the world since 1789 is a long one, there is ample room for a volume of the kind which Mr. D. M. Ketelbey has produced, *A History of Modern Times, From 1789 to the Present Day*. (Thomas Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1929, 623 pp.). Written in an interesting, often dramatic style, organized in a really teachable way, supplied with clear and well-arranged maps, well-balanced throughout, and interspersed with lively quotations, the book should prove highly popular both with general readers and with students. The treatment, for the most part, is chronological, with the first eight chapters devoted to European affairs exclusively. The remaining three chapters, however, though they are mentioned by the author and the publishers as a special feature of the volume, might just as well, I believe, have been omitted entirely as inserted in their present form. They deal, respectively, with the colonial expansion of Europe, with the Far East, and with the United States. A single chapter on any one of these subjects must necessarily be inadequate, and the three chapters in question are just that: inadequate treatments of the history of Africa, Asia, and America during the last 150 years. They would appear to have been included just so as to provide a justification for calling the book a history of "Modern Times," rather than a history of Europe alone. Had their substance been woven into the rest of the narrative, and had the relation between European and world affairs been brought out more clearly in connection with the developments in the various European countries, the result would have been much more satisfactory, and the volume would have been an excellent history of Europe. However, this is, perhaps, merely a matter of personal choice and preference, and the adopted arrangement may indeed be considered a virtue rather than a fault by many teachers.

In a little book of 116 pages, *Germany's Domestic and Foreign Policies* (Yale University Press, New Haven, 1929), Professor Otto Hoetsch, of the University of Berlin, and member of the German *Reichstag*, has given one of the clearest and most concise pictures of post-War German conditions, problems, and mentality that has yet appeared. The volume is a collection of the lectures delivered by the Professor before the Williamstown Institute of Politics in 1928. The topics dealt with include: The rise and structure of the German constitution; the party system and constitutional problems in Germany; the present economic and intellectual status of Germany; Germany's position in Europe as determined by the eastern and western frontier questions, by reparations, and by the Locarno Treaties; and Germany's position as a member of the League of Nations and a signatory of the Kellogg Pact. Admittedly representing the nationalist conservative point of view, these lectures yet are stamped by a degree of moderation and fair-mindedness that is truly gratifying. It would indeed be a boon if precisely similar volumes, dealing with the other large nations of the world, were written.

*England in Modern Times, 1714-1902* (Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1929, 420 pp., \$1.80), by Robert M. Rayner, is a text for secondary school students by a secondary school man who is aware both of the practical requirements of a textbook and of the changing concepts of history. Though written by an Englishman for English schoolboys the book is remarkably free from insularity, and unlike most English books would be usable in American schools. The framework of the book is political, but on that framework is rather skillfully hung an organized variety of economic and social information. Furthermore, Mr. Rayner has consistently maintained his ideal of humanizing his material and training the judgment rather than the memory. The whole period is divided into five epochs captioned by what the author considers the predominating force at the time. Each epoch runs from thirty to fifty years and receives approximately about one-fifth

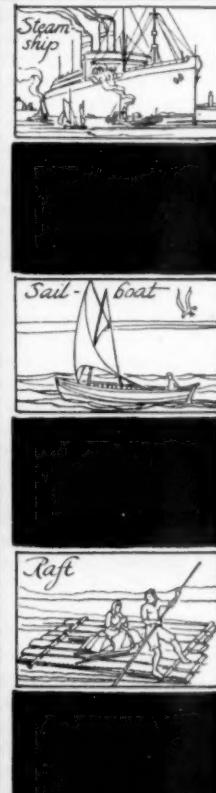
of the space. Each chapter is cut off at eight or ten pages on the plea of convenience for assignments. Despite this rather arbitrary arrangement, however, considerable imagination has gone into the making of the book. There are suggestive questions at the end of each chapter and at the end of each of the five books. The maps and index are satisfactory; but there are no pictures.

*Romanesque France, Studies in the archaeology and history of the twelfth century*, by Violet R. Markham (E. P. Dutton and Co. 1929. xviii, 521 pp., \$7.00) is primarily a collection of travel sketches. It contains enthusiastic, gossipy descriptions of French Romanesque churches, accompanied by historical information drawn largely from the works of Mâle and de Lasteyrie, the reports of the Congrès Archéologique and the local monographs or guidebooks. Though subtitled, "Studies in the archaeology and history of the twelfth century," it is rather summary in its discussion of problems, and avoids detailed analysis of structures as too "technical." Medieval sources are only rarely utilized, and then only at second-hand; hence, the curious practice of quoting Latin texts in French translation. The volume is illustrated by 33 well-chosen reproductions of Romanesque buildings and sculptures.—M. S.

An emigrant Russian professor, George Vernadsky, has written for American and English readers *A History of Russia* (Yale University Press, New Haven, 1929. xix, pp. 397, \$4.00). Its great merits are its proportions in allotment of space to time, and its quite successful dispassionateness both in describing recent events in Russia and in showing how deeply rooted they are in past history. It is useful, also, to have reiterated for non-Russian readers the geographical peculiarity of Russia, even if one does not go all the way with Professor Vernadsky and the "Eurasian" school. The proportions are worth indicating: up to 1700, 83 pp.; to the end of the nineteenth century, 93 pp.; to the

1917 revolution, 48 pp.; and to January 1, 1929, 112 pp. One of the results of this scheme is that the first half of the book is not very attractive either to the student or the general reader. The narrative is too closely packed and demands a greater capacity for integration of unfamiliar detail and a greater receptiveness to allusions than the foreigner to Russia is likely to possess. This fault does not entirely disappear, but is distinctly less noticeable in the treatment of modern times, notably in the chapters on Russian "spiritual" culture. Inasmuch as this is Professor Vernadsky's first book in English, and, as he seems only recently to have entered American academic life, it may be presumed that in future writings or further editions of this book he may lower the emphasis on the character of a manual and bring out in higher relief the interesting and profitable interpretations and syntheses which are at present somewhat obscured in his book. Meanwhile, even if used only for information, it is likely to be of great value to American students. It will substitute for them, particularly in discussion of the present revolution, unity and continuity with the past for what is too often a violently detached view. Vernadsky's simplification of the events of the revolution into its primary forces is a notable and useful achievement, although it would seem that the author's suspicions of Germany lead him too far in relating Bolshevism to German policy.

The Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago has organized elaborate projects for the investigation of the ancient history of the Near East. Nowhere and at no time has historical research been so well endowed and provided with such instruments and opportunities. In *General Circular No. 2* (The Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago, August, 1928, 10 cents), Professor Breasted describes the present undertakings of the Institute and its facilities, its stations at Luxor, Armageddon, and Chicago, the results of the expeditions in Mesopotamia, Egypt,



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Palestine, and Asia Minor, and the various projects carried out at home. The latter include the composition of an Assyrian dictionary, with an index of all the known cuneiform documents, the publication of the texts of oriental animal fables, and of early Syriac manuscripts.

The Institute has issued a series of bulletins (*Oriental Institute Communications*, edited by James Henry Breasted. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill.) which provide richly illustrated, popular accounts of the expeditions. Beside their clear summaries of present knowledge of the problems investigated, they offer the student valuable descriptions of the methods of field work and the various processes that intervene between the discovery of material remains and their adequate interpretation. No. 2 (*Explorations in Hittite Asia Minor*, by H. H. von der Osten, 1927, viii, 127 pp., 101 illustrations) is a journal of a ten weeks' trip in the Halys region of Asia Minor, with a detailed account of its geography and observations of familiar and newly discovered Hittite sites.

Thirty years ago Maspero denied any evidence of neolithic habitation of Egypt, but today numerous discoveries of paleolithic implement types have assured us of an even more remote human occupation of Egypt. The authors of No. 3 (*First Report of the Prehistoric Survey Expedition*, by K. S. Sandford and W. J. Arkell, 1928, ix, 52 pp., 29 illustrations) were engaged in a geological study of the country to provide accurate stratigraphical data for the dating of prehistoric remains, and discovered in the succession of Nile terraces a sequence of implements analogous to that found in the river terraces and caves of prehistoric Europe. They announce also the first discovery of such implements on the Red Sea coast.

The excavation of Armageddon especially concerns the Institute because the site was so strategic a point in the wars of Egyptians and Asiatics. The mission directed by Dr. Clarence Fisher (No. 4, *The Excavation of Armageddon*, 1929, xiii, 78 pp., and 53 illustrations) aims to discover traces of Egyptian occupation from the fifteenth to the tenth century, and the pottery types characteristic of a Palestinian city from the bronze age to Hellenistic times. Dr. Fisher recounts every step of the enterprise of excavation and the recording of new data. He includes a chapter on a recent project for composing a corpus of Palestinian pottery, which will provide the student a ready means of ascertaining the historical position of any newly discovered fragment.

In communication No. 5 (*Medinet Habu, 1924-1928. I. The Epigraphic Survey of the great temple of Medinet Habu (Seasons 1924-25 to 1927-28)*). By Harold H. Nelson. II. *The Architectural Survey of the great temple and palace of Medinet Habu (Season 1927-28)*. By Uvo Hoelscher. 1929, xiv, 50 pp., 35 illustrations), which is devoted to a temple containing reliefs and inscriptions that commemorate the wars of Rameses III with the peoples of hither Asia, the method of obtaining perfect facsimiles of sculptured hieroglyphs and reliefs is described in minute detail. The adjoining palace was excavated, and much new information was obtained about the structure and layout of an Egyptian royal residence. Of especial importance for the history of later European and near-Eastern architecture is the discovery of traces of a barrel-vault supported by colonades.—M. S.

*A Short History of Great Britain Since 1714*, by R. B. Mowat (Oxford, 1927, 327 pp., \$1.25), is a special, somewhat condensed edition of the latter part of the same author's older *History of Great Britain*, devoting about two-thirds of its space to the last hundred years. It is hardly more than a compilation of political "facts," whose only positive feature is the additional space given to imperial development. American teachers have much better books at their disposal in this country. Too many lines are devoted to informing the reader that a certain personage was of an old family, or was educated at Eton, or rowed in a Cambridge crew. If we examine the author's treatment of recent events we find much evidence of the war psychosis. For him also the war was fought only

on the battlefields. Going back further we discover but scanty appreciation of social and economic factors. It does seem as though the elementary student could comprehend in this day and age, with the Russian Revolution a dozen years past, something stronger than the pageantry of war and the bickering of politicians. The illustrations and index, be it remarked, are excellent.

*Stretcher* (New Haven, Yale University Press, 1929, 366 pp.), by Frederick A. Pottle, is the story of an American hospital unit at the Western Front in 1918. Unlike the numerous other war books, which concentrate chiefly upon the life led by the men in the trenches, *Stretcher* presents a lively and interesting picture of army life as a whole, from enlistment and vaccination to red tape and discharge. In addition, the volume contains a good deal of interesting, though at times gruesome, information about war surgery—the author having served for five months in the operating room of a busy evacuation hospital. It is most unfortunate that the publishers should have put so fine a piece of work into a binding so hideous that the book can be placed on a private library shelf only with the paper cover wrapped tightly around it.

The Macmillan Company have issued a revised edition of Raymond Leslie Buell's *Europe: A History of Ten Years*, first published in 1928. The new edition (New York, 1929, 452 pp.) brings the story of events down to July, 1929, and contains, in addition, a chapter on the League of Nations and an Appendix explaining the main features of the Young Reparations Plan. A few errors of fact, present in the old edition, also have been removed.

Professor Walter Burr's *Small Towns: An Estimate of Their Trade and Culture* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1929, x, 267 pp.) is one of the most informing and useful books of its kind that has appeared in recent years. The author, a professor of Rural Sociology in the University of Missouri, has made the rural community his special field of research for fifteen years, and in the twenty-two chapters which make up this volume he gives us the fruits of his study and observations. The historical background of the American small town; its present status with respect to trade, culture, education, government, social and religious life; and the effect of the introduction of better means of rural communication and increased use of home conveniences and power machinery are among the topics treated. Those who live in the industrial east and who persist in damning the agrarian west should read this volume. It would open their eyes to the fact that not all America lies east of the Appalachians.

B. W. Maxwell's *Contemporary Municipal Government of Germany* (Warwick and Yorke, Baltimore, 1928, 162 pp.) offers a compact but fairly comprehensive survey of the changes wrought in German municipal institutions since the Revolution of 1918. The material is adequately articulated to pre-war organization concerning which there is a substantial literature. Dr. Maxwell concludes with a discussion and digest of the proposed National Municipal Code of 1921 which has not yet been adopted. At some sacrifice of readability, but with sufficient attention to the varieties possible under the German federal systems, the author has contrived a remarkably concise and useful handbook.—J. M.

To those persons who reject political history as incomplete and inadequate, and who maintain that the story of American civilization must be told in broader terms than politics, the publication of such monographs as the *Economic History of the Production of Beef Cattle in Iowa* (State Historical Society of Iowa, Iowa City, 1928, xli, 248 pp.), by John A. Hopkins, Jr., and *Daniel Webster as an Economist* (Columbia University Press, New York, 1929, 220 pp.), by Robert Lincoln Carey, will be most welcome.

Beginning with the migration of the cattle industry across the country toward the middle west, Mr. Hopkins discusses in detail the forces which shaped the Iowa cattle industry both before and after 1896, the year which saw the beginning of economic recovery of the country following the depression of the early nineties, the stocking of the State, the grazing industry, the place of beef cattle in the farm business, cattle feeding and financing, and cattle transportation and marketing. In fact, no aspect of the cattle business is neglected. Charts and graphs are numerous and most helpful.

The purpose of Mr. Carey's excellent study is admirably set forth in the first chapter of his general introduction: "The public life and professional career of Daniel Webster have been discussed by biographers, historians and other commentators primarily from three points of view—Webster as a great orator, as a lawyer and a jurist, and as a statesman. A thorough investigation and an exhaustive analysis of Webster as an economist, however, and of his contributions to economic thought and policy in the United States has not been undertaken. While it is true that a few of Webster's more important opinions concerning particular economic issues which were prominent throughout the first half of the nineteenth century—such as the tariff, government finance, and the United States Bank—are well known, comparatively little about him is known in regard to his general economic thought. This study aims to explain Webster's underlying system of economic thought and attempts a broad and intensive survey of all his expressions of opinion relating either to economic doctrine and theory or to economic policy and action." With the purpose constantly in view the author sets forth Webster's general economic philosophy, his opinions regarding production, exchange, and public finance. To the historian, chapters four and five, which discuss Webster's tariff views, especially his defense of free trade in 1824 and his apparent change of front later, are particularly informing. On the basis of his study, Mr. Carey concludes that Webster was for the most part a thorough-going conservative. His conception of an economic society was one based on individualism and private property. In other words, a *laissez-faire*-capitalistic society was his ideal, and his private and public utterances were a laudation of it.

## Communication

### EDITOR, THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK:

The Annual "Seminar in Mexico" holds its fifth session in Mexico City July 5th-25th. The Seminar affords an opportunity to a group of representative citizens of the United States to study the life and culture of the Mexican people. During the past four years it has been attended by educators, journalists, clergymen (Jewish, Protestant, and Catholic), lawyers, and business men. The program includes lectures by the leaders of Mexican life, educational, artistic, governmental. Controversial questions are presented by spokesmen for opposing views. The Seminar is planned as an objective study of the moving forces in Mexico, and is committed to no creedal, economic, or political point of view. The critical discussion centers in the round-table groups, which will be led this year by Professor J. Fred Rippy, of Duke; Professor Chester Lloyd Jones, of Wisconsin; Mr. Carleton Beals, of Mexico; Dr. Ernest Gruening, of Portland; Dr. John A. Lapp, of Marquette; and Mr. Paul U. Kellogg, of The Survey.

The members of the Seminar are given the opportunity to visit typical schools, villages, and archeological monuments. Trips to outlying sections of Mexico are arranged for those who can remain for an additional week or two.

The Seminar is a co-operative, non-profit undertaking.

We will be glad to hear from men and women who are interested in international relations, and whose professional or business connections give them an opportunity to influence public opinion.

HUBERT C. HERRING,

The Committee on Cultural Relations  
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## Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Dec. 28, 1929, to Jan. 25, 1930

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

### AMERICAN HISTORY

Coe, Fanny E. *Founders of our country*, revised edition. 336 pp.

Coe, Fanny E. *Makers of the nation*, revised edition. 384 pp. New York: Am. Book Co. 88 cents each.

Dodge, Ida F. *Our Arizona*. N. Y.: Scribner. 189 pp. \$1.20.

Gardner, Charles R. *Historic Philadelphia*; twelve wood-cuts. Seattle, Wash.: Univ. of Wash. Bk. Store. 63 cents.

Jones, Chester L., and others. *The United States and the Caribbean*. Chicago: Univ. of Chic. Press. 240 pp. (7 p. bibl.) \$1.50.

Hopkins, Harry C. *History of San Diego*. San Diego, Calif.: City Pr. Co., 722 Market St. 358 pp.

Manly, William L. *Death Valley in '49*. Santa Barbara, Calif.: Wallace Heberd. 536 pp. \$3.50.

Nevin, Franklin T. *The village of Sewickley* [Pennsylvania]. Sewickley, Pa.: Sewickley Pr. Shop, Herald Bldg. 227 pp. \$3.00.

Pease, T. C., and Pease, M. J. *George Rogers Clark and the Revolution in Illinois, 1763-1787*. Springfield, Ill.: Ill. State Historical Lib. and Society. 96 pp.

Raeder, Ole Munch. *America in the forties; the letters of Ole Munch Raeder*. Minneapolis: Univ. of Minn. Press. 265 pp. \$2.00.

Siebert, Wilbur H., editor. *Loyalists in East Florida, 1774 to 1785; the most important documents pertaining thereto*. Vol. 1. *The Narrative*. Deland, Fla.: Florida State Hist. Soc. 273 pp. (16 p. bibl.).

Sipe, Chester H. *The Indian wars of Pennsylvania*. Butler, Pa.: Author, Box 536. 793 pp. \$5.00.

Wagner, Henry R. *Spanish voyages to the northwest coast of America in the sixteenth century*. San Francisco, Calif.: Hist. Soc., 609 Sutter St. 579 pp. (5 p. bibl.). \$15.00.

### ANCIENT HISTORY

Barton, George A. *The royal inscriptions of Sumer and Akkad*. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 428 pp. \$6.50.

Breul, Abbé, and Burkitt, M. C. *Rock paintings of southern Andalusia*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. \$25.00.

Brooke, Dorothy, compiler. *Private letters, pagan and Christian* [Greek and Roman from the 5th century B. C. to the 5th century A. D.]. N. Y.: Dutton. 207 pp. \$3.50.

Childe, V. Gordon. *The Danube in prehistory*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 500 pp. \$15.00.

Magnus, Laurie. *The Jews in the Christian era*. N. Y.: Dutton. 432 pp. \$5.00.

Rackus, Alexander M. *Guthones (the Goths) kinsmen of the Lithuanian people* [a history of the Goths]. Chicago: Draugas Pub. Co., 2334 S. Oakley Ave. 432 pp. (5 p. bibl.). \$2.50.

### ENGLISH HISTORY

Reitz, Deneys. *Commando; a Boer journal of the Boer War*. N. Y.: Chas. Boni. 313 pp. 75 cents.

### EUROPEAN HISTORY

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